

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 16, 1882.

The Week.

THE week has witnessed a further liquidation of speculation in France, where several credit concerns not of the first importance have collapsed, and it has witnessed in this country a beginning of the liquidation of the "bull speculation" in Cotton and Produce Exchange commodities. There was at no time during the week anything like a panic in the foreign markets for securities, and at the close some improvement was apparent. Nevertheless, there was sufficient uneasiness early in the week to advance again the rates here for foreign exchange to the gold-exporting point; and the result was an outflow of specie of nearly \$2,500,000. The Bank of England steadily gained specie during the week, but not in sufficient amounts to warrant a reduction in the discount rate, which is still 6 per cent. The decline in the domestic markets in the prices of cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions was large, but as yet it has not been sufficient to quicken or enlarge the export movement, although of course the tendency is in that direction. As soon as merchandise exports become active, a stoppage of gold exports will be in order. The New York money market was easy at 4@6 per cent., although the banks lost \$2,330,000 of their surplus reserve, which was reduced to \$4,050,000, against \$6,380,000 a year ago. At the Stock Exchange the tendency of prices, as a rule, was to lower figures. The Advisory Commission, consisting of Messrs. A. G. Thurman, of Ohio, E. B. Washburne, of Illinois, and T. M. Cooley, of Michigan, which is to consider the question of differential rates referred to it by the trunk-line railroads, met early in the week to prepare for regular sessions in March. There was a break of 15@25½ points in Tennessee State bonds, on account of a decision of the Supreme Court of that State that the Funding Act is unconstitutional. The most scandalous part of the business was that most of this decline occurred before the decision was rendered, showing that the decision was known in Wall Street before it was announced in court. There was also a heavy decline in the inferior class of railroad bonds, such as are speculated in like shares. Outside of speculation, the general trade of the country continues very large in volume and satisfactory as to profits. The price of silver bullion in London advanced to 52½d. per ounce; and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to \$0.8855.

Lord Granville's elaborate despatch about the Isthmus Canal would be very curious reading if we had not already had Mr. Blaine's. Any one would suppose, on seeing them, if he knew nothing of the history of the matter, that there was a contention going on for the possession of a canal across the Isthmus between Great Britain and the United States. There is not. There is no such canal in existence. None is likely to be in

existence either in Mr. Blaine's or Lord Granville's lifetime. The money for such a canal has not been subscribed. It is much less likely to be subscribed now than it was six months ago, and it grows more and more unlikely to be subscribed with every despatch about the control of it. No prudent man cares to put money into an enterprise over which two first-class powers seem likely to quarrel. Earl Granville denies that the greatness of the Pacific coast was not foreseen when the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty was made, and alleges that the causes of dissatisfaction with its working which subsequently arose have since been removed, by the voluntary action of the British Government. This may be all true, but does not make up for the absence of a canal. This is all that is needed to make the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty really worth discussion. The treaty is about a canal; but until there is a canal, or a near prospect of one, it is simply an expression of opinion now thirty years old. Quarrelling over its provisions is very like litigation over a bequest of a testator who has left no assets. It was worth Mr. Blaine's while to write about it, because he needed the despatch for home use, but nobody else can get any good out of the question.

Mr. Blaine's despatch, offering the mediation of the United States for the settlement of a boundary dispute between Mexico and Guatemala, is another instance of the trouble, some vivacity which has played such curious freaks in his management of our foreign affairs. There is really no reason why the United States should not act as mediator between Mexico and Guatemala in such a case, if the two countries desire it. On the contrary, it would be a very proper and, perhaps, a very useful thing to all parties concerned. But the first requisite is that both parties to the contest should want such a mediation. Mr. Blaine, after having been requested by Guatemala to interpose his good offices, was also justified in trying to ascertain whether Mexico would be willing to accept such an offer on our part. But when, in doing so, he rushed in with historical statements which were not only open to question, but also betrayed a bias of his mind in favor of the Guatemala side of the case, and when, besides, his despatch contained some expressions which could be construed as unfavorably reflecting upon the conduct of Mexico, it was very natural that his professions of disinterested friendship and of "lofty" purposes should have found scanty appreciation, and that the only honors borne away by our Government from the correspondence should have consisted in some corrections as to historical facts rather pointedly administered by the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs to the American Secretary of State.

Ex-President Prado, of Peru, publishes an open letter to Mr. Christiancy in reply to his confidential despatch on the ways and manners of the Peruvians. It consists chiefly of a flat denial of all Mr. Christiancy's charges of

degradation and corruption. He suggests incidentally a curious explanation of Mr. Christiancy's statement that the Chinese are generally treated in Peru with the same severity as the slaves were in our Southern States. "You must have felt very bilious when you wrote that letter," he says, "or you would have spared your own country." He ridicules the idea that a man of standing would "lose caste" in Lima if he were to carry a parcel through the streets, and declares that the whole thing depends entirely on the size of the parcel. "Large-sized parcels," he admits, "are carried by servants or sent home by the sellers." But, he continues, "after all, what has public opinion to do with what a person carries or does not carry in his hand?" To a philosopher, of course, nothing whatever, but to the jaundiced eye of Caste it may have a great deal. Even in London, where Caste has lost its hold upon politics to so great an extent, it still draws the line at parcels "tied with a string," and in Lima this delicate distinction is probably unknown.

It is reported that Senator Ingalls's resolution against the repeal of the Pension Arrears Act will pass the Senate almost without a dissenting voice, since the Southern Senators who were on the Confederate side during the war seek to demonstrate their loyalty by favoring any amount of pensions for Union soldiers. But the worst of it is that they will also push the passage of a bill to pension all the survivors of the Mexican war whether disabled or not, and the widows of those of them that have died. It is suggested that this measure is particularly favored by Southerners for the reason that the South furnished a large number of soldiers at that time. Of course, estimates are made to show that only an inconsiderable sum will be needed for that purpose, as the number of surviving Mexican war veterans cannot be very large. But the crop of such veterans and of Mexican war widows that will show themselves immediately after the passage of a bill to pension them all, will be marvellous to behold. Pensioning men disabled in the service is one thing; but pensioning those who have come out of a war without having suffered any injury at all, and a great many of whom have been the whole time in depots and other comfortable places, scarcely away from home, is a thing which a nation cannot afford, unless it absolutely does not know what to do with its money. We are not precisely in that condition. The Pension Arrears Act has already imposed burdens upon the people which, in the course of time, they will become more sensible of than they seem to be now. But the kind of demagoguery which passed that act seems determined to stop at nothing unless public opinion interposes a veto which politicians will not dare to disregard.

The decision of the Tennessee Supreme Court that the 100-3 Funding Act of that State is unconstitutional, is based on the clause making the coupons receivable for taxes for a long period of time. The Court says that the

Legislature has no power to make a contract of this character, apparently on the ground that the legislative authority to raise money by taxation is limited to periods of two years. No clause of the Tennessee Constitution has been mentioned which warrants such a construction; and if the meaning of the Court is that because each Legislature lasts for two years only, therefore coupons cannot be made receivable for taxes beyond that period, the decision will long be remembered as a remarkable feat in legal interpretation. The Court seems to think that the Legislature might bind the people of Tennessee for two years, but we doubt it. The people of Tennessee are as hard a people for a Legislature to bind as any in the world. The bondholders complain of the decision of the Court, and insist that they are being swindled. This, however, was to have been expected, for bondholders, when payment is stopped, always become querulous and dissatisfied. Nothing short of complete confiscation will silence a noisy creditor of this class. The Georgians adopted this plan several years ago. They did not divide into any parties on the debt question, but simply appointed a committee, told it to go over the debt, and settle what should be paid and what should not. The committee repudiated all that they thought had better be repudiated, and there was no further trouble. The bondholders at first wrote letters about it to the newspapers; but even this they have now given up, and Georgia is prosperous and happy, and its credit as high as that of any state in the world.

There is a law forbidding officers and employees of the Government, who are not of the class appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, to demand or receive from any other officer or employee any money or other property for political purposes. The penalty is removal from office and a fine not exceeding \$500. For several years General N. M. Curtis was employed by the Government as a special agent of the Treasury Department. Last autumn he was also made treasurer of the Republican Central Committee of this State. As such he received contributions of money for political purposes from Government clerks and other employees in the Custom-house and Post-office. The Civil-Service Reform Association of this city brought the matter to the notice of General Curtis's chief, Secretary Folger, for such action as the law contemplated. General Curtis contended that he was not a Government officer or employee within the meaning of the law. We learn now that the Secretary of the Treasury has decided to dispense with General Curtis's services at the end of this month and to send all the papers in the case to the District Attorney of the United States in this city, to prosecute General Curtis if in his, the District Attorney's, opinion there has been any violation of the law. Secretary Folger, in explanation of his action, is reported to have said to a correspondent of the *Tribune* that when he came in as Secretary it was understood that General Curtis should "close up" the special business for which he was employed as soon as possible, and "when these charges were made it was agreed in con-

sultation between us [the Secretary and General Curtis] that he should retire by the end of this month."

If this report of the conversation with Secretary Folger is correct, it would seem as if the Secretary had avoided deciding the case upon its merits, and preferred to have it appear that the discontinuance of General Curtis's services had nothing to do with the violation of the statute concerning the levying of political assessments. The Secretary does not seem to have decided the question whether General Curtis did or did not belong to the class of employees contemplated by the law. We do not see how the Secretary could leave that question undecided, inasmuch as the law provides that any officer or employee of the Government belonging to a certain class and doing a certain thing shall in the first place be removed. And as General Curtis, in his capacity of special agent of the Treasury, was subject to removal by the head of that Department, it was obviously the province of the Secretary of the Treasury to determine when under the law he was required to remove a certain employee for a certain offense. This was the duty of the Treasury Department just as much as it is the duty of the District Attorney in New York to prosecute General Curtis for a misdemeanor if the facts and the law warrant such a prosecution. To dispense with General Curtis's services for some other reason would look somewhat like shirking the question.

Mr. Cannon, the Mormon contestant for a seat in the House of Representatives as Delegate from Utah Territory, has been examined by the Judiciary Committee of the House for the purpose of getting from him some information about Mormonism in general, and to give him an opportunity to show "why the bill now before them to prevent all polygamists from voting and holding office should not be favorably reported." Mr. Cannon made some statements which will startle the female population outside of Utah, if they are at all nervous. He, for instance, said, "spiritual marriage" meant that "no woman could secure exaltation in heaven unless united in marriage to a Latter-Day Saint of the Mormon Church on earth." This would evidently make female society in the next world very exclusive. Finally Mr. Cannon fell back upon the old hackneyed argument, that "before Congress undertook to regulate the morality of Utah, there were matters nearer home which required attention: for instance, he had read only recently in the Washington newspapers of babes left to die in corner lots, and he thought there was a condition of affairs in the District of Columbia which required the attention of the Committee on the Judiciary more than did the Territory of Utah." To which Mr. Reed, of Maine, very properly replied that we do not defend such things here and that there is a law against it. It is the usual excuse of the advocates of an abuse that things elsewhere are not as they ought to be. But the Mormons carry this kind of reasoning to a rather unusual length. "There is a good deal of illicit intercourse in your society," they say, "and therefore we are justified in legalizing it among

ourselves by recognizing polygamy as a divine institution. The bad practices of your society are against your law, but we do the same thing in accordance with our law. Therefore, you are sinners and we are saints." Why not apply the same rule to stealing and manslaughter?

The New York Stalwarts had a little dinner on Monday, in the guise of "the Lincoln Club," at which Mr. Emory Storrs and the Rev. Dr. Newman were the principal speakers, although General Grant told one or two good stories about Lincoln. Mr. Storrs, as the custom is at Stalwart feasts, laid the flattery on General Grant very thick, and then gave his views about what the state of things in this city ought to be. The city ought to be Stalwart, he said, and "independent in its Stalwartism," "because Stalwart influences had made the nation great"; and he declared, somewhat mysteriously, that he for his part would "rather have a thousand years of conflict than four such years of foul, sneaking, lying, blustering, nasty hypocrisy as we have passed through." It would appear from this that Mr. Storrs has been having some very disagreeable experiences recently, but he ought either to have explained what they were, or to have avoided all allusion to them. When his moral indignation is fairly aroused it always excites deep public interest and curiosity, and he ought not to excite these feelings and then leave them unsatisfied. One of the odd things about "the Grant crowd" is that they have always had a chaplain, and their chaplain has of course to be a man of mild and tolerant disposition. Ecclesiastics of this kind are easy enough to find, but it is not easy to find an ecclesiastic who combines this mild and tolerant disposition with an ardent enthusiasm and a burning imagination. The present holder of the office, however, does so, and falls little below his predecessor, Bishop Gilbert Haven, who was reminded by the Grant Administration of the Transfiguration on the Mount. Dr. Newman, in like manner, in a burst of childlike rapture over Roscoe Conkling, declared that this particular name "would live when the bronze had melted, and the marble crumbled, and the canvas faded away, and while the stars shine."

Cadet Whittaker's case, after being passed upon by the Judge-Advocate-General, who found that the court-martial was illegally constituted, is now before the Secretary of War, who is said to be very busy and to have no time to look into it. It is expected that he will shortly refer it to the Attorney-General to see what he thinks about the point of the Judge-Advocate-General. The Attorney-General is, however, we believe, very busy too, and there is no knowing when he will be able to attend to it. All this delay is of course delightful for Whittaker, because, the court-martial having found him guilty, it not only saves him from the consequences of his conviction for the moment, but raises the probability that his conviction will never have any consequence at all. He must often feel puzzled in trying to account for his good fortune, and for the tenderness which surrounds him.

The Reverend Talmage seldom touches a subject without throwing some strange new light on it, and in his Sunday lecture on "Secular Topics of the Week as Viewed from a Religious Standpoint," it occurred to him to utter a thought of some significance as to biennial legislatures. He pointed out that if the Legislature met only once in two years, the members would have "more time for earning an honest living." In "off years," not being able to spend the time in their usual occupations at Albany, their thoughts would naturally turn to other and better avocations, and returning to their homes and seeing those around them gaining livelihoods by honest toil, without murmur or complaint at the hardship involved, they would be tempted to imitate them. At first, of course, this would only lead to their alternating their years of corruption at Albany with years of virtue among their constituents; but, gradually, many of them would find honesty making their lives more cheerful and safe if not more profitable than the dull round of wickedness at the State capital, and finally those who had germs of good in them would become weaned from sin and learn to hunger and thirst after righteousness in legislation. A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump, and thus biennial sessions might alter the whole tone of legislation at Albany. Of course, it may be said that other members would occupy their off years merely in plotting new schemes of plunder, and that the biennial plan would thus only give them greater opportunities than they have now for deep-laid "strikes" and jobs. But this risk cannot be avoided, and in the long run we could rely on the influence of honest example.

Mr. Gladstone's proposed new rules of procedure were introduced in the House of Commons on Wednesday. The principal one is, of course, "the previous question"—the moving of which is given to the Speaker in his discretion, while with us it must be moved by a member and supported by a clear majority. But on the Gladstone plan it can only be carried by a vote of 201, on a division, and must not be opposed by more than 39 in a smaller house. To understand how great an innovation this is, it must be remembered that there has been until now no formal way of finally closing a debate as long as any member wished to speak. A debate could be adjourned, and generally when the question was an important one was adjourned, from time to time until every one who had anything to say had said it. Not that every one who would have liked to speak spoke on it. The discussion was usually closed by an understanding between the chiefs on both sides that the vote should be taken when there had been talk enough, and if any loquacious person or free-lance attempted to disregard this understanding, he was coughed, or sneezed, or groaned down, or silenced by shouts of "Divide." But there was no rule enabling the majority to say by resolution that it had heard enough and wished to vote. It can easily be seen what a field this state of things opened to members who, like the Parnellites or the young Tories, cared nothing for party discipline or House usage, and wished simply

to impede business. They had only to put up a number of long-winded speakers in succession to protract the debate indefinitely. To make matters worse, a member could discuss the principle of a bill on each of the three readings, although the House usage confined this discussion to the second reading. The obstructionists disregarded this usage, and not only made an exhaustive speech at each reading, but on every motion made while the bill was under debate. One of the new rules ties down such discussion of the principle to the three readings. It was in the Committee of the Whole, however, that the obstructionists did most execution. Here each member can speak any number of times. Under the new rule he is to be restricted, as in the debates of the House, to one speech. Moreover, the practice of moving the adjournment of the House as a mere dilatory proceeding is to be cut off by forbidding it until all the orders of the day or the motions on the paper have been disposed of.

The powers of the Speaker are enlarged not only by enabling him to put the previous question, but to silence members for what he considers irrelevancy or frivolousness, and by annexing penal consequences to "the naming" of a member. The power of "naming" a member has long been possessed by the Speaker, but, as Speaker Onslow said in the well-known joke, "the Lord only knew what the consequences of naming him would be." In fact, it had no consequence which any offender cared for, and only served the purpose of communicating to the House what it knew already, that the disorderly member was called Brown or Jones. Now, however, it is proposed to enable the Speaker to follow up the naming with a positive penalty, by enabling him to propose the suspension of the offender for one week, or for a month, or the remainder of the session in case he repeats the offence. Another great innovation is the introduction of Standing Committees like those of our Congress, to take charge of different branches of legislation. But the function of these committees is to be very different from that of our Standing Committees. The Standing Committees at Washington really do the work of originating or shaping legislation which in England is done exclusively, or almost exclusively, by the Cabinet. The proposed Standing Committees of the House of Commons are intended simply to subject Government measures to that piecemeal examination which they now undergo in the Committee of the Whole, or, in other words, to save the House the process of debate "clause by clause," which now consumes so much time, and which consists so largely of the discussion of frivolous or trifling amendments. A bill coming from one of the Standing Committees will be understood as having undergone all such useful amendment as it would have received in the Committee of the Whole, but it will be still open to the Ministry to accept or reject this amendment, either in the Committee of the Whole or in the House.

The English news seems to make it more likely that the closure difficulty will not be got over without an election in which it will

be presented as an issue. The London press seems to be nearly unanimous in saying that the feeling of opposition to the new rules grows stronger among members of the House on both sides, and in London society. The truth is that the rules will, if adopted, greatly diminish the power of individual members, and greatly increase that of the Speaker and of the Minister of the day; and it is hard for the present House to agree to this in the absence of any positive expression of opinion from their constituents. In fact, the situation is somewhat like that created in France by the presentation of the *scrutin de liste* to the Chamber by Gambetta. It amounts to a request that the members will consent to make themselves something different and something less than they were when elected, and they naturally snatch at any excuse for not complying. This is one of the cases, too, in which, as during Lord Beaconsfield's Administration, the opinion of society in London, by which members are apt to be very much influenced during the session, is likely to differ greatly from that of the provinces, where Gladstone's strength lies, and there is only one way of making the opinion of the provinces sharply felt in the House, and that is by a dissolution. The country newspapers are not read in London, and yet, if we may judge from what happened in 1880, it is in them that English opinion is to be found.

Mr. Gladstone's difficulties will probably be still further increased by his saying that the proposal to repeal the Union cannot be entertained as long as the Irish are not able to draw the line clearly between local and imperial affairs. This is clearly an indiscreet speech, as it suggests the possibility of a repeal of the Union as soon as the Irish agree upon a plan of separation between the purely Irish interests and those of the Empire at large. It has therefore made "a sensation," but the sensation is probably largely due to the fact that the idea that some sort of local government must be conceded to Ireland has obtained a lodgment more or less distinct in the English mind already, although nobody of prominence has had the courage to confess it. In fact, Mr. Gladstone conceded almost as much during the debates on the Land Bill, when he said he looked forward to the day when the Irish members of the House would manage Irish affairs as the Scotch now manage Scotch affairs. The great defect of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy is that he has not foreshadowed some sort of Home Rule in his own arrangements now, without waiting for legislation. The retention of an Englishman in the Chief Secretaryship—an Englishman, too, of the Forster type—has been, if not a blunder, the loss of an excellent opportunity. Curiously enough, Mr. Gladstone thinks it is a sufficient defence of Mr. Forster's retention that he is a good man. This would be sufficient if his place were that of a bank president or other purely executive officer. But part, and a great part, of his function is to soothe the irritation and dissipate the delusions of a highly excitable and greatly exasperated people. For this his goodness is actually, to a certain extent, a disqualification.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Wednesday the Senate passed a bill ratifying an agreement made with the Crow Indians, by which they cede to the Government a portion of their reservation in southern Montana. The bill provides that the agricultural lands remaining in the Crow reservation shall be divided among the Indians in severalty, and that patents shall be issued to them therefor, and also that these lands shall not be "alienable or subject to incumbrance or taxation of any kind for twenty-five years." The passage of this bill is looked upon as the inauguration of a new policy in legislation for the Indian tribes. This is the only business of importance transacted by the Senate during the week.

Among the bills providing for the relief of the Supreme Court, one was introduced in the Senate on Wednesday by Mr. Pugh which proposes to divide the Court into three divisions, with three Justices in each, to be known as the Federal, Equity, and Admiralty Law divisions. These divisions are empowered to sit separately, and all causes are to be heard in the first instance by one of the divisions, except causes in which a jury is required; these are to be heard by the Court in banc.

The McCoid Apportionment Bill occupied the attention of the House on Wednesday and Thursday. Much opposition to the bill has been developed. On Thursday Mr. Cox of New York gave notice of a motion to recommit the bill to the Committee on the Census, with instructions to report a bill in accordance with the old method of apportionment. Should this motion be made, it will probably be carried by a large majority. Friday was devoted to the consideration of private bills and three appropriation bills—namely, for Immediate Deficiencies, Indians, and the Military Academy.

A bill to fix the compensation of letter-carriers was reported to the House on Tuesday, with favorable recommendation. It fixes the pay of auxiliary letter-carriers at \$600 a year, and provides that after one year's service they shall be promoted, with their pay increased to \$800 a year, and after two years' service they shall be advanced another step, and their salary increased to \$1,000 a year.

The House Committee on Agriculture has adopted a report in favor of making the Agricultural Department an executive department.

The sub-committee of the House Committee on Territories has agreed unanimously on a bill to provide for the admission into the Union of all that part of Dakota Territory south of the forty-sixth parallel.

A delegation of about sixty residents of southeastern Dakota waited on the President on Friday, and submitted a resolution asking the removal of Governor Ordway of that Territory.

There appears to be an absolute necessity of some measure to relieve Congress from the burden of private legislation in the form of petitions and bills for the relief of individuals. The single Committee on Claims of the House has already had nearly a thousand bills referred to it, and the Committee on Invalid Pensions is still worse off. It is said that there is not a standing committee of the House which has not more or less private business on its calendar.

The President has sent a special message to Congress, accompanied by a communication from Secretary Kirkwood, enclosing letters from the acting Governor of Arizona, in regard to the lawlessness existing in that Territory. Mr. Kirkwood says that in New Mexico and Arizona the difficulty of repressing lawlessness arises from the fact that the sheriffs either are intimidated, or have motives for currying favor with the disorderly elements of society, and he recommends that the Governor of Arizona be empowered to remove or suspend a sheriff for neglect of duty. The acting Governor of Arizona in his letter ad-

vises the repeal of the Posse Comitatus Act. In his message the President recommends that the Posse Comitatus Act be modified so as to permit the use of the military to assist the civil authorities in the Territories. The message was referred to the Senate Committee on Territories, and a bill conforming to the President's suggestions will probably soon be reported.

The case of Cadet Whittaker is still in the hands of the Secretary of War, who has been so pressed with other matters that he has not had time to lay it before the President. The case will eventually be referred to the Attorney-General for an opinion on the point raised by the Judge-Advocate-General as to the validity of the findings of the court martial.

More of Mr. Blaine's diplomacy was brought to light on Friday by the publication in a Boston evening newspaper of a correspondence between the State Department and the Government of Mexico, in relation to the settlement of the boundary between Mexico and Guatemala. On June 16 Mr. Blaine wrote to the United States Minister at the city of Mexico that Mexico ought not to extend her territory by force at the expense of her weaker neighbor. This letter of instructions was communicated to the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs, who wrote in reply that neither "force nor conquest had been the foundation of the rights which Mexico claimed to that portion of her territory which Guatemala disputed." He then goes on to show that Mr. Blaine had been guilty of "historical errors," one of which arose from "impassioned statement" or ignorance of the history of Mexico.

Secretary Folger has "thought it best" that Special Agent General Curtis's term of service "should end." The Secretary, however, says that he does not look upon it as a removal from office; nor does he undertake to decide the question of whether or not General Curtis was an officer of the United States within the meaning of the law he is charged with having violated. The Civil-Service Reform Association will now probably take steps to get General Curtis indicted by the Grand Jury, which meets on the 20th of February.

Members of the Government Assay Commission who have returned from Philadelphia report that the assay was most satisfactory, and showed less than the usual deviation in the coins from the standard.

Postmaster-General Howe has sent a letter to all the postmasters of the United States asking for contributions for the monument to President Garfield which is to be erected in Washington by the Society of the Army of the Cumberland.

The minority of the Naval Advisory Board on the improvement of the navy have presented a report, in which they recommend that fifty-three ships be built at once, and of iron hulls, on the ground that the steel used for ships has none of the physical qualities of real steel, and is simply a high quality of iron, whose tensile strength is in fact about the same as that of our best merchantable iron, while it costs much more.

The first annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology contains an exhaustive study by Colonel Garrick Mallery of the sign-language among North American Indians, and a paper by Dr. Yarrow on the mortuary customs of the Indians.

The Board of Army Engineers appointed to consider a plan for the improvement of the Potomac flats began its labors on Friday.

Colonel Seaton, Superintendent of the Census, thinks that it will require between eight and twelve months to complete the work of his bureau. The printed report will embrace about 20,000 pages.

The Supreme Court of Tennessee has declared the Funding Act of 1881, which compromised the bonded indebtedness of Tennessee at par and three per cent. interest, and made the coupons receivable for taxes, unconstitutional. Two of the five judges dissented

from the decision. This decision has created considerable surprise among persons interested in Tennessee bonds.

Some time ago the City Council of Adrian, Michigan, authorized the issue of bonds for water-works purposes, but doubts were raised as to the legality of the authorization. It has since appeared that the whole issue of these bonds has been negotiated, and over half the money drawn on them. It is now charged that the bonds were not legally authorized, and that they are therefore not valid.

Much disorder having been caused in the town of Greenwood, Steuben county, New York, by an attempt to collect taxes levied to pay certain bonds issued by the town of Greenwood ten or twelve years ago in aid of a railway, and the people having intimidated bidders at the collector's sales, Governor Cornell on Monday issued a proclamation declaring the town in a state of insurrection.

The largest sale of land probably ever made in this country to private individuals was recently completed in Texas. A tract of land in the northeast corner of the State, five times larger than the State of Rhode Island, was transferred to five persons, who have agreed, in consideration therefor, to furnish the money to pay for a new State House for Texas.

A shooting affray took place in the office of the *National Republican*, at Washington, on Thursday, which resulted in the death of A. M. Soteldo, Jr., a well-known newspaper reporter. The city editor of the *Republican* was also shot in two places. The immediate cause of the affray was an article reflecting on Soteldo, which appeared in the *Republican*.

Ko-Kun-Hua, Professor of Chinese at Harvard College, died suddenly from pneumonia on Tuesday. He was a mandarin of high rank and considerable literary distinction, being the author of two volumes of poems, which at the time of his death he was preparing to translate into English.

A despatch was received by the New York *Herald* from Lieutenant Danenhower on Thursday, which stated that De Long's party was "in a narrow wilderness, eighty miles long, devoid of habitation and game." From his further account of the voyage of the *Jeannette*, it seems that the general health of the crew was excellent, no scurvy having appeared during the voyage. The ship drifted in a northeasterly direction, making but forty miles during the first five months, but during the last six months the drift was very rapid. The greatest cold experienced was 58° below zero, and the greatest heat 44° above. The photographic collection and the auroral observations were lost with the ship, but the naturalist's notes were saved. Lieutenant Danenhower gives a short account of the three newly-discovered islands Jeannette, Henrietta, and Bennett.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone's rules of procedure for the House of Commons are the absorbing topic in political circles in England. There is great opposition to the *clôture*, but it is stated that the Government is determined to stand or fall by the new rules, and it is intimated that in case they are rejected the Government will try to pass some reform bills, and will then dissolve Parliament. The debate on the rules will begin on Thursday next.

Mr. Gladstone's new rules of procedure for the House of Commons are, in brief, as follows: The Speaker shall have authority at any time to "put" the question before the House, but such a proposition must be supported on a division by more than 200 or opposed by less than forty members. No member shall have a right to make more than one dilatory motion in committee of the whole House during the debate on any one question. No member shall move the adjournment of the House before the orders of the day or the motions on the paper have been reached, and provision is made for enabling matters of extreme urgency to be brought before the House without notice and without delay.

The number of occasions on which the principles of a bill may be discussed is limited. When a member is "named" by the Speaker for disregarding his authority or abusing the rules of the House, the Speaker shall propose his suspension, which suspension, if carried, shall on the first occasion be for one week, on the second for a month, and on the third for the remainder of the session. Provision is made for the reference of bills to standing committees, in which case the bills will not be required to be submitted to the committee of the whole House, but discussion and amendment of them will be taken on the report of the standing committee to which they have been referred. The bills referable to these committees, which shall consist of from sixty to eighty members, shall be such as relate to law, trade, shipping, and manufactures. These are the main provisions embodied in Mr. Gladstone's proposed changes in the method of procedure. There are a number of minor rules bearing on technical points, but all with the same end—namely, to facilitate debate and prevent such "filibustering" as was indulged in by the Irish members during the debate in the last session on the Irish Land Bill.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, in the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech, Sir Stafford Northcote accused the Government of allowing matters to "drift" in regard to Egypt, Ireland, and the commercial-treaty negotiations with France. In reply Mr. Gladstone made an eloquent speech, in which he attacked the Land League, eulogized Mr. Forster for his efforts to restore order in Ireland without bloodshed, and upheld the impartiality of the Commissioners under the Land Act, saying that the average of the rent reductions so far was twenty-three per cent. In regard to the Land League's war against property, he said he thought there was every indication that a great conspiracy had been defeated. In the afternoon Mr. Justin McCarthy, on behalf of the Irish members, gave notice of a long amendment to the address, categorically condemning every point in the Government's Irish policy, and urging an immediate return to constitutional methods. On Friday Mr. Forster, in speaking upon this amendment of Mr. McCarthy's, said that the Government had tried the effect of releasing the imprisoned suspects, and pointed to the case of Father Sheehy as an instance of the result of such action. Fair rent, he said, according to Mr. Parnell's views, practically amounted to no rent at all. In conclusion he said that, notwithstanding the signs of improvement in Ireland, the Government would not relax their vigilance.

In the House of Commons on the 14th the address in reply to the speech from the throne was adopted by a vote of eighty-seven to twenty-two. Mr. McCarthy's amendment condemning the Government's Irish policy and urging a return to constitutional methods being rejected by a vote of ninety-eight to thirty.

Lord Granville's despatch of January 7, in reply to Mr. Blaine's despatches in reference to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, has been published. He denies that any analogy exists between the cases of the Panama and Suez Canals. He also denies that the unexampled development of the Pacific coast was unexpected, and says that the declarations of President Monroe before the treaty was made show that he and his Cabinet had a clear prevision of the great future of that region. The British Government is of the opinion that the canal as a water-way between the two great oceans and Europe and Eastern Asia is a work which concerns not only the American continent, but the whole civilized world. Lord Granville concludes by proposing an invitation to all the maritime states to participate in an agreement based on the stipulation of the convention of 1850. Her Majesty's Government would be prepared to endorse and support such action in any way, provided it does not conflict with the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. In a subsequent despatch

Lord Granville calls attention to the fact that Mr. Blaine, in using the argument that the treaty has been a source of continual difficulties, omits to state that the questions in dispute which related to points occupied by the British in Central America, were removed in 1860 by the voluntary action of Great Britain in certain treaties concluded with Honduras and Nicaragua, the settlement being recognized as perfectly satisfactory by President Buchanan. Lord Granville says, further, that during this controversy America disclaimed any desire to have exclusive control of the canal.

In reply to an interpellation on Thursday in Parliament, Mr. Gladstone said that the outrages on the Jews in Russia must fill every one with the utmost pain and horror, but that as the question was an internal one, the British Government could only, when a fit occasion arose, intercede in a friendly manner.

A memorial signed by M. N. M. de Rothschild, on behalf of the Jews of England, addressed to the Emperor of Russia, setting forth the grievances of the Russian Jews and asking that some measures be taken for their protection, which was presented to Prince Lobanoff on the 19th of January, has been made public. Prince Lobanoff declined to transmit the memorial, in accordance with instructions from his Government.

Three hundred Hebrew refugees from Russia sailed from Liverpool on Saturday.

England and France have sent a collective note to the Powers explaining their attitude on the Egyptian question. This note is said to be couched in very amicable terms.

A despatch from Cairo to the London *Daily Times* on Tuesday says that the situation in Egypt continues to be one of expectancy, and that it is feared that the present Ministry will be forced to take decided action in order to hold their own with the army, as there are distinct symptoms of impatience among the soldiery, of which the Chamber is only the mouth-piece.

The British and French Controllers-General have protested to Mahmoud Barodi, the Egyptian Prime Minister, against the terms in which the ministerial programme mentions the European Control. The protest points out that the Control is not a mere agency for collecting the interest on the consolidated debt, but that it is invested with the fullest right to investigate everything connected with the Egyptian revenue.

The Porte has addressed a circular to the Powers stating that it has instructed the Khedive to observe international treaties and maintain order.

The ceremony of the return of the sacred carpet from Mecca was celebrated at Cairo on Sunday in the presence of the Khedive and the Ministers. There was an unusual display of troops and cannon. Arabi Bey, Minister of War, was present during the ceremony, and received special attention from the court and was warmly greeted by the populace.

France is said to be disinclined to reconvene the Monetary Conference on April 1st, and it is reported to be doubtful whether any English representative will be sent to the conference should it reopen.

The disagreement between France and Guatemala, arising from an assault on an attaché of the French legation, has been compromised. Guatemala is to give satisfaction.

New results of the failure of the Union Générale continue to appear in France. The Banque de Macon and the Comptoir Breton have failed. The official liquidator of the Union Générale has gone to Vienna to ascertain the exact relation between the Union Générale and the Vienna Landerbank, particularly whether the capital of both is the same.

In consequence of the prevalence of small-pox in the United States, the authorities at St. Thomas, West Indies, have ordered fourteen days' quarantine on all vessels from the United States.

A despatch from Vienna to the London *Times* on Monday says, in regard to the Herzegovinian revolt, that the coast line has been cleared by combined operations from Castelnuovo and Cattaro. The captured positions are being fortified, and an advance may shortly take place from various sides. In the meanwhile the revolt is increasing, and the revolutionists have established a provisional government. A number of minor engagements have taken place of late, in all of which the insurgents are reported to have been worsted. A fight occurred on the 10th instant near Tirnova, lasting from daybreak until two o'clock in the afternoon. The insurgents fled, leaving twenty dead and carrying away about forty wounded. The Austrians lost five killed and wounded.

It is reported that in order not to offend Russia, Austria has entirely abandoned the plan of partial or temporary occupation of Montenegro. Negotiations, however, are proceeding with Prince Nikita with a view to the passage of Austrian troops across his territory if necessary.

The first sitting of the committee on the bill to amend the ecclesiastical laws was held in Berlin, on Saturday. Herr von Schloezer, who is now at Rome negotiating with the Vatican respecting the present bill, has been furnished with extensive powers. The German Government, while desiring the revision of the May laws, insists that the discretionary powers vested in it shall remain as a basis for legislation on the subject.

The Papal Nuncio has expressed a desire that the Spanish Government should prohibit the proposed pilgrimage to Rome. The Spanish Cabinet, however, is adverse to taking this step, and would prefer that the Vatican should issue directions to the prelates that they alone should undertake the organization of the pilgrimage, in order that it may not have the appearance of a political demonstration.

Berthold Auerbach, the well-known German novelist and poet, died on Wednesday, the 8th. He was perhaps best known from his "Village Tales from the Black Forest," which have been translated into many languages. On the 14th, two Frenchmen of distinction, Henri Auguste Barbier and Louis Joseph Martel, died. The former obtained great popularity as a writer in France by his satirical "lambes" written at the time of the Revolution of July. Martel was prominent in public life, being for a short time President of the French Senate, of which he was a life member.

A treaty of peace has been concluded between Chili and Bolivia. The terms are as follows: The two republics mutually agree to consider the war at an end; Bolivia agrees to respect the Chilian right to occupy all the territories now in its hands which formerly belonged to Peru or Bolivia, and in return for this concession Chili undertakes to permit the transit of goods through Arica at moderate rates of import and export duty.

Mr. Trescott was formally received by the Government of Chili on the 14th of January. His speech on delivering his credentials was reassuring in its character, and calculated to remove all belief in the theory, which seems to have been current in Chili, that the United States was meditating conquest in those regions. The President's reply to Mr. Trescott was couched in very friendly terms. The Chilians have been sending expeditions into the interior of Peru, and endeavoring to restore order in those regions. On the sea-coast, business is beginning to revive, and hopes are entertained that the pacific features matters are beginning to assume will result in some degree in the restoration of commerce.

A despatch from Panama says that although more activity is being shown in the prosecution of canal work, still nothing has been accomplished at all in proportion to what the public were led to expect would be by this time.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1882.

DEMOCRATIC BANKING THEORIES.

SINCE 1879 we have heard but little of the financial vagaries with which politicians used to divert the public mind during the suspension of specie payments. Even the silver agitation, full as it was of queer sayings and doings, fell far short of the resumption agitation in the oddity of the misinformation and misstatements which were poured forth during the ten years before resumption. A long list of the strange things said by Congressmen in debate on this subject was published in the *North American Review* some years ago by Mr. C. F. Adams, Jr., which, when massed together in this way, had much of the raciness, variety and mirth-producing quality of a good comic almanac, and seemed almost incredible to those who do not follow debates in Congress, or only see Congressional fallacies one by one. But, as those who took part in the discussion will remember, the greatest difficulty in getting the better of the inflationists did not lie in their arguments. These were generally easily enough disposed of. Their strongest weapon was their facts, which were by no means easily disposed of, and which had, perhaps, a more powerful influence than anything else in persuading people that a return to specie payments was not desirable. By their facts we do not mean real facts of nature, but baseless assertions disguised as facts, and presented with the calm and confidence with which truthfulness and accurate men produce real facts.

There is nothing, as we have said, more difficult to contend with, in public discussion, than this is, because the people, to their honor be it said, while ready enough to believe that a public man has been arguing badly, are not ready to suspect him of misstating the more notorious events of recent or contemporaneous history, and it takes a great deal of trouble to convince them of it. The inflationists and silver-men have both largely availed themselves of this popular charity or confidence, and accordingly have never been for one moment at a loss for evidence or precedent in support of any of their proposals. Whenever it has seemed likely that a foreign example or experience would give plausibility to any of their theories they have unhesitatingly compounded, out of their own heads, some very striking corroboration, to which they sometimes assign date and place, but more frequently describe as having taken place "recently," and somewhere in Europe generally. Not long ago, our vivacious friend Mr. Wendell Phillips helped to prove he was right in advocating a currency of permanent, irredeemable Government notes, by declaring that "the best minds of Europe" were coming rapidly round to this pleasing and simple scheme; and of course no gentleman was so impertinent as to ask whose minds they were, and in what particular part of Europe they carried on their processes of reasoning.

Mr. Buckner, of Missouri, has recently saddled himself with the gigantic task of reforming our currency and banking system, and proposes for this purpose to put an end to the issue of bank notes, and substitute Government paper for them, and to allow Congress to fix the amount required by the

business of the country. To support his scheme he alleges that an elastic currency is all humbug, or, as he terms it, "a great financial or monetary folly," and that "since 1844 the credit circulation of Great Britain has been fixed in amount by law, and the same policy is adopted practically by Germany." Now, as both these countries, and particularly Great Britain, have had a much longer and more varied experience in dealing with currency problems than we have, Mr. Buckner's statement, if correct, would be very forcible. But it is not correct. It seems, as he utters it, a well-known and generally accepted fact, and it has been produced as such over and over again by Western papers. But it is nothing of the kind. The circulation of the Bank of England is not limited in amount by law. It may be of any amount, provided it is issued against the deposit of a corresponding amount of coin. The Scotch banks are allowed to issue the amount of notes over one pound which they had afloat in 1845, and any amount whatever in addition to that against deposits of coin. The Irish banks work under the same rule. The Government, in fact, leaves the amount of currency in circulation to be determined strictly by the wants of trade, which is the only way in which the amount of currency needed can ever be accurately determined. It does not undertake to supply currency to the people; nor does it allow anybody else to say how much currency the people ought to have. The whole banking machinery of Great Britain, in fact, since the Acts of 1844-5, works strictly under the laws of trade.

The process is, in reality, a very simple one. The world's stock of gold and silver is treated as the only source on which the British trader can rely when he wants more currency, and the banks are simply the medium through which he makes known his need of a larger or smaller supply. He gives notice of his needs by his applications for discount. When these are numerous and pressing, the Bank of England raises its rate, which draws gold from abroad, and when it receives the fresh supply it issues notes against it, or, in other words, issues the gold in a more portable form. It will draw any amount the British trader needs if he can afford to pay enough for the accommodation, and issues notes against every cent of it. When his need is over or diminishes, he signifies it in like manner by failing to apply for discounts and by returning to the Bank its notes, takes out the gold, and exports it, as something for which he has no further occasion. The greater part of this process goes on in the Bank of England, but it goes on also in the prominent banks of Ireland and Scotland; but the Government has nothing to do with it beyond the police duty of seeing that what the banks issue has gold and silver behind it.

It will be easily seen, however, that to the working of this system, or of any currency adapted to the wants of trade, banks are absolutely necessary. It is through them that trade makes known its need of more money, and they are the agents through which it is procured from those parts of the world which are over-supplied. The Government could not perform this function simply as an issuer of paper even against gold coin. It would have to become a banker and open accounts

with traders, and discount their bills, because no trader could carry on business if, every time he needed money, he had to go to the Treasury with a bag of gold and carry away a bag of notes. He does not wish to draw the money at all except for export. He wishes it kept where he can get it when he wants it, and can draw it in sums to suit his convenience.

But is any sober-minded man prepared to have the United States Treasury go into the banking business? Does any one suppose for one moment that it would be possible for it, if it did, to create and maintain public confidence in the purity and fairness of its management? And if it does not go into the banking business, how is the country to communicate to it the demands of trade, varying as they do from week to week, and often from hour to hour, as to the volume of the circulation? And how are the demands, when communicated, to be met without the intervention of Congress? Nobody, surely, proposes to revive Mr. Boutwell's plan of empowering the Secretary of the Treasury to let loose a few millions of Government notes whenever he thinks it necessary, and nobody supposes that, even if Congress had the financial knowledge or experience to act as a bank directory, it could act with sufficient promptness. Mr. Buckner says that if we doubt this, "our objection proves too much; we deny our capacity for self-government." But this argument also, if good, proves too much, because the Constitution itself bristles with restrictions on the power of Congress, based on simple disbelief in the fitness of legislators for a great number of apparently simple duties, and belief in their proneness to commit a great number of apparently obvious mistakes. In fact, there is nothing more uncomplimentary in denying the competency of the Legislature to "run" a bank than denying its competency to discharge executive and judicial functions, which denial is one of the glories of our system of government.

THE GENEVA AWARD FARCE.

THE highly successful legislative farce known as "A bill reestablishing the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims, and for the distribution of the unappropriated moneys of the Geneva Award," was announced for repetition on Wednesday by the Chairman of the House Judiciary Committee, Mr. Reed of Maine. The plot of the piece, with which some of our younger readers may be unfamiliar, is as follows:

Many years ago, long before the panic of 1873, or the Chicago fire, or the Granger movement, a war broke out between the United States and the Southern States, and a distant maritime power called England let some of her subjects build war vessels to help the Southern States. These war vessels burned and sank all the ships and cargoes of the United States or drove them off the sea. England said this was all right because she was neutral. The United States said it was wrong because England was neutral, and a great dispute arose as to what neutrality was, and whether it included the duty of preventing such things. All the

lawyers of the United States said it did; but all the English lawyers said it did not, and so there was no way to settle the dispute but to go to war or else to go to law about it. The latter course was resolved upon, because neither country really wished to fight. So a court was appointed by both countries to decide whether England had done her duty as a neutral, and if she had not, to ascertain how much damages she ought to pay.

Meanwhile the United States had told all its citizens who had lost anything by the war vessels to send in their claims to the State Department, and it would make England pay them. And from all quarters the claims came in—claims from people who had lost ships, and claims from people who had lost goods, and claims from insurers who had paid for vessels, and claims from people who said that the war vessels had diminished their profits because it frightened them out of their business, and claims from people who said that they had been forced to pay too much to insure their goods because the war cruisers had frightened the insurers. So the Government took all the claims, and told its lawyers to present them, with any others it could think of, to the court at Geneva. These lawyers were very clever men, and after thinking a good while they came to the conclusion that the Government had a claim itself, because the war vessels had caused the whole country a great deal of trouble, and given it a "bad time" for many years. They thought this was worth several thousands of millions of dollars. The English lawyers of course insisted that none of these claims were good, but they were all presented to the court.

Then the court decided in the first place that England had done wrong in letting four of the cruisers be built, and that England must pay for what they had done, and took up the claims of the insurers and the men who had lost ships and goods by the acts of the four cruisers, and made an award of damages based on them, and excluded all the other claims as being good for nothing. So they made England pay \$15,500,000 in hard coin to the United States, and the United States took the money, and Congress said, "Now we will pay it to the claimants, those poor men who have lost so much and suffered so long." For it was now several years since the war. So the insurers and shipowners were much pleased, and clapped their hands for joy. But just then all the other claimants whose claims had been decided by the court at Geneva to be good for nothing came to Washington and demanded to be paid too. What they said was, "Never mind whether our claims have been recognized or not; we are your constituents, and if you don't pay them you shall not be re-elected." But Congress said, "We will pay the shipowners first, and then we will see about the others afterward. There is time enough to pay the insurers, because all insurance companies are rich and make money; and it would not look well to pay illegal claims just now." So the shipowners were paid off, and then there remained some ten million dollars to be distributed, and then Congress every year referred the matter to the judiciary committees, and

the judiciary committees sent for the claimants and heard them. They always told the same story, however, so that this got rather tiresome, and the insurance companies began to make a loud noise about "their money," and ask why it was not paid to them, and the illegal claimants to make a loud noise about the insurance companies, and every year half a dozen bills were introduced into Congress—some to pay the insurance claims and some to pay the illegal claims, and some to let the judges decide who ought to be paid.

But at every session Congress adjourned without passing any bill at all, and so at the next session the bills had to be introduced all over again. Finally the Government got impatient, and said: "We can never decide what to do with this money; let us pay some of our own debts with it."

This year the House Committee has brought in a bill to provide for paying the illegal claimants and to prevent any of the remaining legal claims being paid. The insurers, who are the legal claimants, do not like this, and they will have a bill to pay their claims, which will exclude the illegal claims. Then some members of Congress will favor one bill and some the other, and finally neither will be passed, but Congress will adjourn and the curtain fall, and the audience go home and tell all their friends what a funny play it is. Its run has been one of the longest on record.

THE MORAL OF THE PRIZE FIGHT.

STRONG expressions of disgust with the late prize fight continue to appear in the newspapers, coupled with lamentations over the keen interest in the affair displayed by men and boys of the working class all over the country. This interest, indeed, appears to have been as strong in Boston as anywhere, and Boston furnished the victorious pugilist. Sullivan was born and brought up in that city, under all the influences provided by the State for the proper education of its youth. We are greatly afraid, too, that diligent searching of the heart would reveal the fact that there were very few Massachusetts men of any class, who paid any attention whatever to the "mill," who were not secretly pleased that, a mill having taken place, a Boston boy should have won the belt from a Tipperary Irishman. If it has no other value, it shows, as the Heenan-Sayers fight was held to show, that the physique of the European race does not decline in this country. Sullivan is doubtless of Irish origin, but he has been exposed long enough to the agencies to which European philosophers like to ascribe the degeneracy of the American man, to make it clear that the degeneracy is easier to talk about than to prove. His victory is one of a great number of facts, which have been accumulated since the war, going to upset the old theories about the injurious influence of the American climate, which, when Cobden was here in 1833, he treated as no longer open to question. For this reason alone more people than care to avow it, took a clandestine satisfaction in the manner in which Heenan hammered Sayers, in 1860. The present writer in fact in that year heard a discussion in which an Episcopal clergyman displayed a warmth in maintaining Heenan's claim to the belt

which would have seemed at least adequate in a sporting dry-goods jobber who had given heavy odds on the event.

A prize fight is a beastly spectacle, but then the prize-fighter has to be a fine animal, with much courage and endurance; and all men like a fine animal, and secretly chuckle over his strength and bottom, especially when they can claim any of the credit of him—just as they chuckle over the performances of their own or their country's horses. The encouragement to prize-fighters, which has happily greatly diminished during the last twenty years, does not in fact come wholly from the coarse and uneducated and vicious class. It is fed by secret rills of sympathy which flow from higher sources. The boys and men who hang round the telegraph and newspaper offices waiting for the story of a great "battle" have less shame, and probably less to do, than their neighbors; but they are not alone in their eagerness to know how the affair ended, and in their capacity for satisfaction or dissatisfaction over the result.

This explanation does not, however, cover the whole ground. An observer of the play of public opinion in an Anglo-Saxon country about a prize fight must, if candid, confess that there is in the popular interest in it a survival of the barbarism of which war is the most striking example. We have got so far as to abhor the vendetta and all violent modes of settling private differences, in thus showing an immense advance on our ancestors; but in the matter of settling the larger differences of nations, we have made but little progress since the first recorded Olympiad. There is probably no subject to which the powers of the human mind have been so actively, eagerly, and energetically applied during the last 2,500 years as the means of deciding international disputes; but the principal result has been an immense improvement in the methods of destroying life, and the conversion of the happy warrior from a braggart swordsman and javelin hurler like Goliath into a pale and silent student like Moltke. There is still nothing which rouses and interests civilized people as much as war does—nothing which so disturbs their reason and judgment; and there is no field of human activity in which skill, independent of moral qualities or social usefulness, is so highly honored and rewarded. No statesman, however wise or able or useful to his kind, can win in fifty laborious and illustrious years more of public honor and love and gratitude than nations give in ten to the hero of a few successful battles.

This may be melancholy, but it is true, and it in part explains why a mill between "heavy weights" throws all the youth of the country into a state of excitement. It is, on a small scale, a display of that process of deciding things by force of which war is an example on a great scale. The issue is a very petty one, but it is nearly as rational as the question which is so often debated, with great heat, whether Englishmen or Frenchmen, or Englishmen or Americans, make the best soldiers. The British captain of a man-of-war, who welcomed Sayers on board his ship in the Mersey in 1860, and presented him to

his crew as an honored guest, was not mistaken in supposing that a good fighting crew must have Sayers's qualities—pluck, endurance, insensibility to pain and to the sight of blood, and a love of combat *per se*. In short, the extirpation of the prize-fighting mania from our manners will be accomplished by precisely the same process which makes men shrink from settling international differences by mutilating and destroying the bodies of great masses of young men and horses. A few centuries hence, let us hope, "mills" and great battles will be read of with common horror, not unmixed with amusement.

THE RAILROAD DEADHEAD.

THE Iowa Legislature last month directed the Railroad Commissioners of that State to make a report on the following points:

"1. Whether free or reduced rates of fare should be given to any class of citizens except paupers, mendicants, or other proper objects of Christian charity and benevolence.

"2. Whether persons elected to public office by the people, or members of the press, or political conventions of any kind, shall be allowed to accept these favors.

"3. Whether the railroad companies should be restrained from issuing passes to public officers or members of political gatherings or conventions of any kind at reduced rates of fare.

"4. Whether any or what limitation should be placed on these practices by law.

"5. If the Commissioners deem this to be a wholesome and legitimate practice, that they give this body their reasons for such belief."

The Commissioners have now made an exhaustive report, which is very different in character from what was expected by the legislators who brought the matter up. They say in the first place, that paupers and mendicants in Iowa—and the same thing is undoubtedly true elsewhere—are not given free passes or reduced rates, while the only objects of Christian charity and benevolence who are allowed this privilege are clergymen. This practice the Commissioners defend as tending to the spread of religion and morality, and as resting partly on a convenient application of the law of demand and supply to Christianity. They say: "It has been the practice for many years, and we understand ever since the railroad became the main channel for passenger travel, to extend to clergymen preaching or in charge of congregations along the lines of the various roads a certificate that enabled them to purchase tickets at half the usual rate. The preacher is engaged in the certainly laudable employment of teaching good morals and raising the standard of character in the community in which he lives. For this service he is paid by the voluntary contributions of those who respect his spiritual character and are grateful for his instructions. This we do not regard as charity, for he renders an equivalent for all that he receives as fully as laborers in any other profession." Editors, the Commissioners think, should have free passes "as payment for advertising, or such notices of the roads as seem to be an equivalent." With regard to political conventions they declare that the sentiment of the people of the State is in favor of reduced rates because, "under a republican form of government, the best results are attained where two political parties are nearly equally balanced, and where each, to gain or maintain supremacy, finds it necessary to nominate for positions of public trust its ablest and purest men, and advocate measures that each can demonstrate to be for the best interest of the people"; and "one method of keeping up these party organizations is through the instrumentality of political conventions, where men from all

parts of the State meet for interchange of views and for general discussion of public policy." They add, what seems a more conclusive argument, that the Legislature has no power to prevent members of the press or delegates to conventions from taking free passes if they can get them.

With regard to elective officers the Commissioners think the case is different. All the executive and legislative officers, judges, district attorneys, and sheriffs in Iowa are, it seems, deadheads. The sheriffs are given passes for somewhat the same reason that clergymen get them. The latter are encouraged to raise the standard of character throughout the State, and the former to lay hands upon those whose standard of character is so low as to make lay treatment of a penal nature necessary. The railroads feel that the more the parson and the sheriff can be encouraged to travel the more safe life and property on their lines will be, and in this of course they have a direct pecuniary interest. On the other hand, the Commissioners do not think that this argument applies to the Governor, judges, or members of the Legislature, and whether the motives of such officers in taking passes are pure or not, they think that "each member of the General Assembly can best determine for himself."

The Commissioners then proceed with great gravity to narrate the story of Ansel Bascom, a once famous legislator of this State, who in the year 1846 was offered a free pass by the president of the Albany and Rochester Railroad. At this time the canal question was "up," as the canal question usually is at Albany, and Mr. Bascom wrote a letter to the president returning the pass, and saying that he went to Albany to represent the people and not the Albany and Rochester Railroad, that it was part of his duty to "watch" that railroad and see that it did no wrong, and that it would be consequently a fraud on the State for him to take the pass. Mr. Bascom's self-denial made him for the time being a public character; but the effect, the Commissioners say, was ephemeral—so ephemeral that they even add that the railway pass is regarded in this State to-day as a legislative "heritage." The Commissioners have evidently not seen the latest contribution to the literature of the subject contained in the letter of District Attorney McKeon, of this city, who recently returned a pass, stating that when he was a member of the Legislature at Albany he not only never took a railroad pass, but invariably waited till the spring thaw broke up the ice, and "came down by the boat," like the noble old Roman that he is.

The Commissioners declare that as an "abstract proposition" the free-pass system is a bad one, but they think that it cannot be dealt with by the Legislature as an abstract proposition. Several States have taken it up as an abstract proposition, with somewhat curious results.

The Pennsylvania Constitution, adopted in 1873, has article 17, section 8, as follows:

"No railroad, railway, or transportation company shall grant free passes or passes at a discount to any person except officers and employees of the company."

The Arkansas Constitution, adopted in 1874, has article 7, section 17, as follows:

"The General Assembly shall prevent by law the granting of free passes by any railroad or transportation company to any officers of the State, legislative, executive, or judicial."

The California Constitution, adopted in 1879, article 11, section 19, says:

"No railroad or other transportation company shall grant free passes or tickets at a discount to any person holding an office of honor, trust, or profit in this State, and the acceptance of any such pass or ticket by a member of the Legisla-

ture, or other public officer, *other than Railroad Commissioners*, shall work a forfeiture of his office."

The Board say in conclusion, with great frankness, that they regard the clause in the California Constitution "as the best model for a legislative enactment," and add: "It is said that these constitutional provisions are practically a dead letter in the States above referred to, as are all statutory provisions of this character, but this Board greatly mistakes the temper of the management of the Iowa roads if any legislative enactment of this kind will not be in every case scrupulously complied with."

There seems to be a difference of opinion in Iowa as to whether the reply of the Railroad Commissioners is the result of deep reflection upon this branch of the railroad problem, or whether it is to be regarded as the product of a sarcastic and cynical spirit. The arguments, suggestions, and facts contained in it, however, deserve wide attention as throwing some light on the limits imposed by circumstances upon reform through legislation.

THE PINE SUPPLY OF THE LAKE REGION.

THE publication of Prof. Sargent's Forestry Bulletin of Michigan completes that portion of the series which treats of the important pine forests of the great lakes, and enables us to offer some considerations upon the present condition of these forests, and the influence they exert upon the prosperity of the country.

It is shown that in the three great pine-producing States—Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota—there were standing, according to the carefully-digested estimates of the Census Office, in the spring of 1880, some eighty-two billion (82,010,000,000) feet of merchantable pine. Of this nearly one-half, or forty-one billion feet, are credited to Wisconsin; the two Michigan peninsulas show thirty-five billion feet, and Minnesota but a little more than six billion feet. The pine cut in these three States reached during the census year a total of over seven billion (7,035,507,000) feet. At this rate of destruction these States would be stripped of their pine forests in less than twelve years.

It should be borne in mind, however, that all estimates of standing timber, from the manner in which, from necessity, they must be prepared, are liable to considerable error; and although such estimates usually greatly exaggerate amounts, it is not, perhaps, unreasonable to suppose that many small and scattered bodies of pine, especially in the northern peninsula of Michigan and in northern Minnesota, have escaped the notice of the census experts, and that the published estimates might be safely increased by a few million feet. It is equally safe to suppose that no great bodies of unexplored forest remain within these States, or that, so far as they are concerned, new discoveries will introduce new elements in the calculations of the lumber supply of the country. The most northern and the most inaccessible wilds of these forests have now been explored; their limits are faithfully mapped, and the uncertainty which has so long existed in regard to their extent and richness has disappeared before scientific methods of investigation.

The Bulletins show, then, that at the present rate of production twelve years will exhaust the pine supply of these States. But is it probable that the rate of production will not increase with the growth of the country? According to the returns of the Ninth Census, 3,912,199,000 feet of lumber were manufactured in 1870 in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. These figures represent the total production, and include a

small amount of hard wood. The total production during the last census year, including also hard wood, reaches 7,145,969,000 feet, or an increase of eighty-three per cent. of production in 1880 over 1870. Something, probably 10 per cent. of this apparent increase, should be credited to the better methods of the Tenth Census, and its greater success in collecting the statistics of manufactures. On the other hand, 1870 was a year of great prosperity and excessive production, while in 1880 the lumber industry had not yet fully recovered from the commercial prostration of the preceding years.

An increase of consumption of eighty-three per cent. in ten years, or even of seventy per cent. (which is probably nearer the correct figure), is alarming. Nevertheless, the rate at which these forests will disappear will, we believe, be much greater in the near future. The almost entire exhaustion of the pine supply of Maine, New York, and Pennsylvania; the greater facilities which the improvement of the rivers, and the general introduction of short logging railroads and tramways, afford for getting out logs from regions which ten years ago were still either entirely unknown or considered so remote as to be beyond the reach of profitable markets, indicate that, rapid as has been the removal of these forests, the rate of future destruction must be much greater. It is probable that the annual production of pine lumber in these three States will increase considerably during the next five, or perhaps eight, years, and that it will then cease suddenly, and almost entirely. We do not wish to be understood to prophesy that at the end of eight years no more pine lumber will be manufactured in Michigan, Wisconsin, or Minnesota. Pine in small quantities will continue to grow in these States, and pine lumber will probably be manufactured there always. What we intend to say is, that at the end of eight, or perhaps ten, years the pine forests of these States will have been so nearly exhausted that their production will have ceased to be of any national importance, and will not be available for more than mere local supply.

No steps have ever been taken to preserve or perpetuate these forests. Their destruction has been wanton, short-sighted, and stupid. The goose which has laid so many golden eggs, and has built up cities and fleets and great traffic lines, is dying. There can be no future for much of the immense region from which these pine forests have been removed, and it must remain a desert until generations of humbler plants shall have made another crop of pine upon it possible. Nature is slow to forgive any infringement of her laws, and the great-grandchildren of the men who have destroyed these forests will not live to see the shores of the great lakes covered again with pine forests fit for the axe. A wiser policy and a different management might have secured permanent supply with greater, or as great, individual profit. The northwestern lumberman in his march to the north has made a clean sweep before him. If any tree escaped his rapacity, the fires, which have everywhere followed in his wake, destroyed it, and destroyed, too, the ability of the soil to produce pines again. Had he selected only trees of a standard size to cut, leaving all young trees to grow up and sufficient old trees to furnish the ground with seed for new crops; had he excluded fire from the partially-cut woods, these pine forests might have been preserved indefinitely, and been made to yield crop after crop, and far greater aggregate returns than have now been obtained from them.

The destruction of these forests will drive the men and the capital now engaged in working them to seek new fields of industry, and the fail-

ure of the lumber supply in these States must seriously affect the prosperity of Chicago and other points of distribution, as well as many transportation companies depending in whole or in part on the movement of lumber for their traffic. Chicago is now the greatest lumber centre the world has ever seen. More than one billion eight hundred million feet of sawed lumber entered it by rail and lake during 1881. Its shipments reach the Atlantic and to beyond the Rocky Mountains. The Chicago Lumber Exchange regulates the lumber trade of the country. In lumber Chicago is king; but its reign is almost over. Its immense lumberyards will soon be empty, and with the pine forests of the lakes will disappear the commercial advantages which its central position in relation to these forests has given to it as their chief point of distribution.

No city of the United States can ever hope to rival Chicago in the volume of its present lumber business. New Orleans or San Francisco will probably become the successful competitor in the race for second place. Both are the natural outlets for vast forests of great commercial importance, and both are conveniently situated for a great foreign and domestic lumber trade. The information, however, which Prof. Sargent has no doubt succeeded in obtaining in regard to the extent and character of the forests of the Gulf and the Pacific has only been partially published, and we must therefore defer any further predictions upon the future of the lumber industry of the country until the completion of his series of Forestry Bulletins shall have furnished us with the facts necessary to consider this subject intelligently.

THE PAST YEAR IN EGYPTOLOGY.

CAIRO, January 16, 1882.

THE past year will ever be memorable for the valuable and remarkable discoveries that it has yielded to Egyptology. M. Maspero has just published his official report of the great find of royal mummies at Thebes. The narrative is enlivened by numerous photographs, among which are those of the mummies of Thutmes III. and Ramses II.—the grand old monarchs whose titles are inscribed on the Central Park obelisk. The texts of the interiors of the pyramids of the V. and VI. Dynasties, opened at Sakkara last spring and summer, are also appearing in rapid succession in M. Maspero's 'Recueil,' published at Paris. Besides these discoveries, concerning which accounts have already appeared in your columns, three additional discoveries have been recently made which do not deserve to be passed by in silence.

In the desert five miles west of Kom-el-Hamadra—a village on the western border of the Delta, and midway between Cairo and Alexandria—the Bedaween unearthed a large stone which they described as "taller than a man, and covered with fine writing." Herr Emil Brugsch, the Conservator of the Boolak Museum, and brother of Dr. Brugsch Pasha, proceeded at once to the spot and found the stone to be a stela, or tablet, used by the Egyptians to record decrees and epitaphs. This newly-discovered monument is inscribed with tri-lingual texts which prove to be copies of the Decree of the Synod of Priests assembled at Canopus, ordaining the deification of Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy Euergetes, and creating a fifth order of priests to be called Euergetæ. The decree is dated the 17th of the month of Tybi, of the ninth year of Ptolemy Euergetes (B. C. 238), and is consequently nearly a century older than the famous Rosetta Stone. Another copy of this same decree of Canopus is inscribed upon

the stone of Sān or Tanis, in the Boolak Museum, of which the British Museum possesses a cast.

To appreciate the interest that attaches to this new find, it may be well to recall the fact that in 1819-22 it was the tri-lingual Rosetta Stone that yielded to the researches of Young and Champollion the key to the language of ancient Egypt, and thus became, as Mariette says, "the instrument of one of the greatest discoveries that do honor to the nineteenth century." Not, however, until Lepsius and Mariette, in 1865-6, brought to light the Greek, hieroglyphic, and demotic texts of the Canopic Decree engraved upon the Stone of Sān, was the accuracy of Champollion's mode of interpreting hieroglyphics confirmed, and the study of Egyptology placed on sure and solid grounds. The Stone of Kom-el-Hamadra—as, judging from analogy, I suppose this stela will henceforth be called—bears the same decree as that of Sān, except that the texts, inscriptions, and representations are very much fuller and detailed than are those of the latter. The stela is a splendid piece of workmanship: it is of limestone and measures eight feet high by three feet wide and two and a half feet thick. The top is rounded, and represents the winged disk, and pendent uræi serpents, together with the upper and lower portions of the crown *pschent*. Below the uræi serpents there are some twelve lines of hieroglyphs, and representations of Ptolemy Euergetes, his queen, and his daughter Berenice, the "Queen of Virgins." Then follows the decree in Greek, hieroglyphic, and demotic. This stela has already been placed in the Boolak Museum, which, with the additions of the past year, is now quite as rich in monuments, tablets, mortuary relics, and writings—barring historical papyri—as are the combined collections of Europe. This is as it should be, for Egyptian relics have an artistic value here, which they lose in the uncongenial climate and surrounding of Europe and America.

The second discovery that I have to announce is that of two tombs of the VI. Dynasty, which present the earliest known instances of the *arch*. These tombs are of private persons of high rank. They were discovered near the most southerly group of Sakkara pyramids, and within a stone's throw of the prominent truncated pyramid of King Unas, known as the Mastaba-el-Pharaon. It should be remembered that in the interior of the Pyramid of Mycerinus of the IV. Dynasty—the smallest of the three great Pyramids of Ghizeh—there is a passageway the top of which, although resembling an arch, is not constructed on the principle of an arch—that is to say, blocks were placed horizontally, one projecting beyond that immediately below it, till the uppermost two met in the centre; the interior angles being afterward rounded off to form the vault. Several instances of these pseudo-arches are known to exist in tombs of the VI. and later Dynasties, but no true arch had hitherto been found previous to those in the tombs of the XVIII., XIX., and XX. Dynasties, near Thebes. The arches in the two recently-discovered tombs of the VI. Dynasty are built over the entrances. They have ornamented keystones, and are beautifully constructed of fine bricks.

The third discovery to which I have referred is that of the long-sought-for entrance to the Pyramid of Maydoom—a pyramid which will probably turn out to be at least a century older than the Great Pyramid of Cheops, and hence the oldest known monument in Egypt. This pyramid, situate some fifteen miles to the south of Ghizeh, is one of the most striking landmarks on the Nile. From a distance it seems to stand on the top of a hillock; a nearer view shows this hillock to be formed by the crumbling away of the outer casing of the pyramid itself. It is

called by the Arabs "el Haram el Katdab" (the false pyramid), for they suppose it to be formed of the rock itself. Its general appearance has been described by Miss Amelia Edwards as "an unfinished Tower of Babel." The Pyramid of Maydoom is doubtless the most carefully constructed and altogether the best-built pyramid in Egypt. About fifty years ago Ibrahim Pasha, wishing to effect an entrance, thundered away at it for a whole day with artillery. He neither attained his object, nor did the pyramid itself suffer much material injury. A few weeks ago Maspero's workmen, after a long and careful search, removed the massive blocks which had so long concealed a small opening, that soon proved to be the much-coveted entrance. This aperture was discovered on the northern face of the pyramid, and at a considerable distance from the base. The corridor leading from the entrance toward the interior has been cleared for a distance of forty-five metres. This corridor is similarly disposed, and is constructed in the same manner, as that of the Pyramid of Cheops. The entrance to the central chamber is effectually blocked up by the falling of the roof of the corridor. The workmen are, however, busily engaged in clearing away the debris—a task both difficult and perilous, which may require one or perhaps two months. The only texts thus far found in the corridor are the inscriptions of two Scribes who visited the interior of the pyramid in the time of the XV. Dynasty. Recently discovered collateral evidence tends to strengthen the hypothesis that this pyramid is that of King Snefroo, of the III. Dynasty, who reigned, according to Brugsch, B. C. 3706, or, according to Mariette, B. C. 4200. The picks of the Arab workmen will, however, soon determine the question.

Discoveries of the startling and dramatic nature of those of the carefully preserved Royal Mummies, and the opening of long-closed pyramids and tombs, are perhaps overshadowed, as far as pure scientific value is concerned, by a new region in Egyptology recently opened by the successful exertions of Dr. Brugsch Pasha and M. Revillout. These two savants have made a specialty of the demotic writing of Egypt—a writing so intricate and confused as to be unintelligible to some of the keenest Egyptologists. The hieratic writing, used almost exclusively by the priests, is to the hieroglyphic what the handwriting of the present day is to print. The demotic is a very much abbreviated form of the hieratic, and stands in about the same relation to the hieroglyphic that our shorthand does to the page of a printed book. Moreover, the demotic, being written in the hurry of every-day business, actually presents a penmanship so cramped and careless as to add almost insurmountable obstacles to the already difficult task of deciphering it.

The demotic came into use during the XXVI. Dynasty, and being used for ordinary business and legal transactions, its literature gives an insight into the laws, social state, customs, and manners of the Egyptians that is not to be hoped for from the scholarly and monumental styles of the hieratic and the hieroglyphic. An excellent account of the nature of the treasures which demotic scholarship has in store for us, appeared in a recent number of the *London Times*. It seems that no less than several thousand demotic papyri are preserved in the collections of London, Paris, Berlin, Leyden, and Turin. These documents, mostly of a legal character, are no longer a *terra incognita*, but furnish a solid basis for the study of the law in its earliest development. The demotic papyri provide us with deeds of sale, of transfer, of gift, of partnership, of endowment; leases of houses and lands; mortgages, bonds, receipts for taxes and other payments, marriage settlements,

marriage contracts, decrees of divorce, title-deeds, inventories, etc.

The progress in the interpretation of demotic literature strikingly recalls the truth of Bunsen's prediction, that "Henceforth the positive philosophy of universal history, constructing and delineating the curve described by the Divine mind in man through space and time upon this star which we call the earth, . . . cannot be carried on scientifically and successfully without the assistance of Egyptology." The effect which these demotic papyri are destined to have upon our present ideas of ancient law and legal institutions remains yet to be seen. It is too much to expect that Egyptologists shall also be legists; but the moment has now come for the jurist to work hand in hand with the Egyptologist, to utilize the material that science has placed at his disposal, and at length to trace the history of the law throughout that logical and natural course which has been both widened and deepened by Egyptology.

B.

Correspondence.

THE REVOLT IN DALMATIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Within the last two or three weeks the newspapers on both sides of the ocean have begun to contain a good deal of news from the eastern side of the Adriatic. For many months past events have been going on there which have been fully chronicled in the *Manchester Guardian*, and less fully in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, but which seemed to draw to themselves no notice in any other quarter, British or American. This is not very wonderful. Dalmatia is a good way from Britain, and further still from America, and many people have doubtless become tired of anything to do with "the eternal Eastern Question." But more than this, it has throughout been the interest of powerful personages to hinder this piece of present history from being known. Few newspapers, British or American, have any direct and constant communication with Dalmatia, and information from Vienna is worse than no information. It is the story of the lamb as told by the wolf. In England most people take their knowledge of such things from the *Times*, and the Vienna correspondent of the *Times* is well known as one of the bitterest and most unscrupulous enemies of the Southeastern nations. No people in the world have smaller means of making their wrongs known than the South-Slavonic people who are under the Austrian yoke. It is simple ignorance of their case which hinders them from receiving the full sympathy of all lovers of right in both hemispheres. Liberal Europe and America rejoiced at the deliverance of Lombardy and Venetia from the rule of Francis Joseph. But then Liberal Europe and America knew something about Lombardy and Venetia. Southern Dalmatia, Herzegovina, and Bosnia are now in arms against the same foreign oppressor from whom Lombardy and Venetia have been set free. Their cause is the same; their right to the good wishes of free-men is the same. No nobler struggle for right was ever waged on European or American soil than that which is now being waged among the hills by the Mouths of Cattaro. It is the struggle of a few brave men to guard the rights and homes of their fathers against, not indeed the bloodiest, but certainly the meanest and pettiest tyranny to which an unwilling people ever had to bow its head.

There used to be a proverb among schoolboys about "hitting one of your own size." At Solferino and at Königgrätz Francis Joseph tried hitting those of his own size, and he found that

those of his own size hit rather too hard for him. Since then he has tried hitting those who are not of his own size, and at that game he has got on better. It is easier to bully Servia and Roumania than to fight France and Prussia. It was easier still for one of the great powers, with the other great powers to back him, to flinch from Montenegro a little haven which Montenegrin valor had won from the barbarian and in which not one of his grandmothers had ever reigned. He seemingly thinks it easiest of all to force, in direct breach of his imperial, royal, and apostolic word, a hated burthen on men whom a very modern usurpation has unhappily constrained to be his subjects.

I speak of Francis Joseph personally, because every one who knows the Southeastern lands knows that the boasted constitutional monarchy of "Austria-Hungary" is a mere sham as far as those lands are concerned which are neither Austria nor Hungary, but in which the common sovereign of Austria and Hungary rules as a foreign intruder. There is no constitutional government in Dalmatia, any more than there is in Russia—or rather, there is a great deal less. For the people of Russia can bring a great indirect influence to bear on the policy of their national prince, whose interests are the same as theirs; the people of Dalmatia can bring no influence whatever to bear on the policy of a foreign ruler, whose interests are the opposite to theirs. The only kind of moral or immoral influence which that foreign ruler can exercise in the subject land is to try to play the Italian and the Slavonic elements in the land against one another. Beyond that there is simply the rule of the sword—suppression of newspapers, suppression of municipal corporations—all the usual tricks of foreign tyranny. With all this there is no reason to charge the Austrian people, or even the visible Austrian Ministry. It is all the doing of the irresponsible prince and his irresponsible advisers.

Let me shortly run through the history of these lands as far as concerns present events. In the last century Dalmatia was very unequally divided between the two commonwealths of Venice and Ragusa. The Ragusan territory came in the middle, leaving Venetian territory to the northwest and to the southeast. The Ragusan dominion, though oligarchic in constitution, was native, and not oppressive. The Venetian rule was foreign, better and worse in different times and places, but one which at least kept out something worse in the shape of the Turk. Many towns and districts willingly accepted it. Among these were some of the districts near Cattaro, which commended themselves to Venice on condition that their old rights and customs should be observed, and that, if at any time the Republic should be unable to protect them, she should leave them to themselves, and not cede them to any other power. On these terms, which seem to have been well observed, the men of the *Bocche* remained Venetian subjects till the fall of Venice in 1797. Then the two spoilers, the French and the Austrian, divided the prey, and all Dalmatia, including the privileged districts, fell to the share of the Austrian; that is, the people of the Mouths of Cattaro were, in defiance of their old rights and of old treaties, forcibly handed over to a new foreign master. Next the spoilers quarrelled. In 1805 the Austrian ceded his supposed rights over Dalmatia to France, in the person of the elder Buonaparte. Part of Austrian Dalmatia was occupied, and in 1808 Buonaparte, without any provocation, suppressed the commonwealth of Ragusa and annexed its territory. Between 1810 and 1814 various points were occupied by England—England, Russia, and Montenegro being allies against France. In 1813 the French were driven

out of Cattaro, which became the Montenegrin capital; the mountain principality now again reached to the sea from which Turk and Venetian had so long shut it out. Meanwhile the people of the privileged districts freely united themselves to Montenegro, according to their old rights. It must be remembered that the Slavonic people of Southern Dalmatia, of Herzegovina, and of Montenegro are simply the same people in every sense, parted asunder only by arbitrary political divisions. Montenegro simply means that extent of territory, more or less at different times, which has been able to preserve its independence. At this time, as the ally of England and Russia, the independent land was greatly enlarged. France was driven out; Austria stood by and did nothing; the men of the Bocche—the Mouths of Cattaro—were, by their own act, restored to the rule of their national prince and to full fellowship with their own people.

After the fall of Buonaparte, at the peace of 1814-1815, it might have been expected that the commonwealth of Ragusa, arbitrarily suppressed by him, would have been restored, and that at least those parts of Dalmatia which had voluntarily joined themselves to Montenegro would have been allowed to keep the freedom which they had won. But Francis of Austria—the man who had been the last Roman Emperor and German King, and who devised the new-fangled and grotesque title of "Emperor of Austria"—had the face to ask that all should be handed over to him. Cattaro he could not keep; Ragusa had never been his for a moment. But he had the imperial, royal, and apostolic shamelessness to ask for both; and England and Russia were base enough to let him have what he asked. They betrayed their mountain ally; the newly-won freedom of the Bocche was overthrown, and its people, so lately delivered, were again thrust under the foreign yoke. Montenegro had to give up her recovered sea-coast and her new capital of Cattaro. Ragusa, instead of the restoration of her republic, had to exchange one foreign master for another. The Austrian, in short, took all that French, English, Russians, and Montenegrins had been fighting for. He went off rich with his own former stealings of 1797, and with his son-in-law's stealings of 1808 besides. He did, however, at the request of Alexander of Russia, promise to the men of the Bocche that he would observe their old privileges which Venice had respected. The chief of these was exemption from the Austrian (so-called) *Landwehr*. The mere name should not mislead any one. To a German, *Landwehr* means military service in defence of his own land at the bidding of a national government. To the South-Dalmatian subject of Austria it means military service at the bidding of a foreign intruder, who may likely enough bid him march against his own people. For to him the free people of Montenegro are his own people; their prince is his national prince; Francis Joseph, his self-styled King and Emperor, is merely a foreign usurper, holding his land in bondage by brute force. That is to say, the Dalmatian feels in 1882 as the Venetian felt in 1805, and the Lombard in 1858.

It will be remembered that in 1849 Francis Joseph gained possession of the kingdom of Hungary by Russian and Croat help, and that, after eighteen years' rule as tyrant, he became its lawful King in 1867. From that time dates the so-called *dualism* of Austria and Hungary. This practically means the joint supremacy—the *condominium* one might almost say—of the German and Magyar minorities over the Slavonic majority in the various kingdoms, duchies, etc., which make up the family estate of the House of Lorraine. Francis Joseph, kept on his throne by

the help of Slavonic swords, holding all that he has by the grace of Nicolas of Russia and Jellachich of Croatia, has now and then found himself in a singular relation toward his own instruments. He has had before now to seek his tools for his enterprises against the freedom of other nations among the men whose blood he once sought when they were defending the freedom of their own nation. Driven out of Italy, but now firm on his Hungarian throne, Francis Joseph now stretched forth his hands to vex certain of the race to whom he owed it that he had a crown on his head or a shirt to his back. The first act came in 1869, in the shape of an attempt to set aside the chartered rights of the men of the Bocche by forcing the hated *Landwehr* upon them. The attempt was in vain; the brave Dalmatians took to arms and utterly routed the troops which the foreign oppressor sent to bring them under the yoke. I have seen in Dalmatian houses pictures of scenes in this struggle. The defenders of freedom are seen hurling the invaders down their heights with a good will. Never, not at Marathon or at Morgarten, did men wage a nobler or a more successful struggle for right. The foreign lord of Dalmatia had to knock under to the Dalmatian people; the scheme of forcing the *Landwehr* on the men of the Bocche was given up for eleven years. But it was convenient to hush up the overthrow alike of the imperial, royal, and apostolic policy, and of the imperial, royal, and apostolic armies. Solferino and Königgrätz could not be hidden; defeats among the Dalmatian mountains could be. I find that the best informed men both in Britain and America never heard of the Dalmatian war of 1869. But, small as the scale was, freedom assuredly never won a nobler victory.

In 1875 Francis Joseph paid Dalmatia the memorable visit which undoubtedly led to the Slavonic revolt in Herzegovina, and to all that has since happened in southeastern Europe. The visit was understood as a visit of reconciliation, and Francis Joseph was well received in his character of King of Dalmatia and Lord of Cattaro. A noble future was at that moment open to him: he might have put himself at the head of the Slavonic cause—that is, he might have put himself at the head of the great majority of his subjects. At their head he might have done all that Russia did, and more also, without calling forth anything like the jealousy that Russia called forth. For a while his policy was distinctly favorable to Southeastern freedom. When I was first in Dalmatia, in the autumn of 1875, the patriots of Herzegovina, who had just risen against the Turk, were receiving effective Austrian support in every shape short of actual military help. But the King of Hungary and Archduke of Austria could not go on in the course which might have suited the King of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia. Help given to Slaves was not agreeable to Magyars; and the imperial, royal, and apostolic policy turned about. The patriots were discouraged in every way; the patriot leader Liubibratich was basely kidnapped and kept a prisoner. But no active steps were taken; the policy of the House of Lorraine was, just as it was sixty years before, to stay quiet while others acted, in the hope of thereout sucking no small advantage in the long run.

The Psalmist speaks of certain oppressors of old who lay waiting secretly in their dens that they might ravish the poor. This picture exactly sets forth the policy of the Apostolic King. There is nothing of the *pecca fortiter* about him. He has not pluck for burglary or highway robbery; but he can put his hand into the pocket of his poor neighbour and fitch from him his hard-won halfpenny. In the war of 1876-1877 Montenegro won back a seaboard; the men of the

mountains won three havens from the Turk—Spizza, Antivari, and Dulcigno. Of these, Spizza and Dulcigno, though small, were possessions worth having, for so small a state as Montenegro; Antivari had been utterly ruined in the siege—ruined mainly through false promises of Austrian help to its defenders. At the Congress of Berlin in 1878 Francis Joseph, like his predecessor, who asked for Ragusa and Cattaro and got them, asked for Spizza, and got it. No demand could be more shameless. He had not the slightest shadow of claim to Spizza; the rich man wanted the poor man's ewe lamb, and that was all. It was the kind of deed the unrighteousness of which is almost outshadowed by its pettiness. Dulcigno, too, was given back to the Turk. It was only Antivari, because Antivari had been carefully made worthless, which Montenegro was allowed to keep, and that only on insulting conditions. As far as Dulcigno is concerned, the cruel wrong done to the men of the Black Mountain has been since redressed by the energy and patience of Mr. Gladstone; but Spizza, perhaps the very smallest stealing to which a crowned head ever stooped, remains part of the family estate of Francis Joseph.

The same treaty of Berlin also handed over to Francis Joseph the "administration" of Bosnia and Herzegovina without any formal cession of those lands by the Sultan. That is to say, the Apostolic King, like some of his predecessors, became the man of the Turk. The annexation was not acceptable to either the Mussulman or the Christian inhabitants of those lands; for both are South-Slavonic, and every man of South-Slavonic blood had by that time taken the measure of Francis Joseph. The provinces to be "administered" were won by the apostolic middle-man of the Turk, but only after a gallant resistance, chiefly from the Mussulman inhabitants, but with some Christian help. Those lands have since been "administered" after a fashion which has united the whole people, of whatever creed, in a common loathing of the foreign dominion. Which form of tyranny, Turkish or Austrian, is the worse is perhaps a matter of taste. The Turk robs, murders, ravishes, when the fit is upon him; but the fit is not always upon him, and in the intervals he leaves his victims alone. The Austrian never has the same outrageous fits as the Turk; but then he never leaves his victims alone for a moment. Every hour of their lives they are worried about some small matter or other. Their national feelings are insulted by all those petty follies which bring no profit to the ruler, while they call forth the hatred of the subject even more strongly than deeper wrongs. At last the *Landwehr* was to be forced upon Bosnia and Herzegovina. That was too much for either Christian or Mussulman endurance; and a large part of Herzegovina and Bosnia is in arms against the stranger.

So in Dalmatia. The defeat of the attempt in 1869 had a wholesome effect for a while, as was shown by the conciliatory visit of 1875. But the events of 1878 gave Francis Joseph a great advantage, in case he should ever dream of a new attack on the rights which he was for a time compelled to respect. Up to that year Montenegro, Herzegovina, and the Bocche, inhabited by one people in every sense of the word, were under three distinct rulers. But whenever any one of the three had any fighting to do, whether against Turk, Gaul, or Austrian, the other two always came to help. After 1878 this could not be so easily done. Francis Joseph had got a great military advantage from his joint possession of Herzegovina and Dalmatia. He had got a great political advantage from the European recognition of Montenegro. Prince Nicolas is now diplomatically bound to keep his people—

if he can—from helping their enslaved brethren. Last year therefore, Francis Joseph thought that the time was come for a second attempt on the liberties which he had engaged to respect. The *Landwehr*, he thought, could now be forced on those who had successfully resisted his aggression in 1869. When I was last in Dalmatia, in June, 1881, the storm was beginning. The hateful burthen was being pressed on the lowland districts; the men of the mountains had made up their minds to resist, as they had done eleven years before. At Manchester every detail has been all the while known in full. The rest of the world seems for many months to have taken no notice. Now every paper tells of the details of actual warfare.

What may come of all this none can tell. The odds are fearfully on the side of evil; but a good cause, inaccessible heights, Crivoscian valor, and Austrian stupidity, are four powerful influences on the side of right. Movements on behalf of freedom which looked much more promising have before now been crushed; but movements which looked quite as hopeless have before now succeeded. The movement of 1875 seemed quite as hopeless, and it has changed the whole map of southeastern Europe; the movement of 1881 may be destined to put an end to the ugly and upstart imposture which calls itself the "Austrian Empire."

Meanwhile Austrian brags, Austrian predictions, Austrian statements of any kind, go for nothing. The other day, Montenegro was to be "occupied." A pretty hard game that for the hired and kidnapped bondsmen of Francis Joseph, as any one will say who has seen the freemen of Tzernagora on their own heights. But it is a most hopeful sign, if the telegram be true which announced a few days back that thirty-five soldiers of a Dalmatian regiment had left the service of their foreign oppressor and had joined themselves to the defenders of their country. All honor to men who could thus trample under foot the base traditions of their trade, and could prefer clean patriotic duty to the bloody spectre called "military honor." With such men for ensamples, what can be the feelings of a man like Jovanovich, himself a Slave, but who is not ashamed to take the pay of the stranger against his own people? On this side of the ocean, one is inclined to ask whether he knows the history of Governor Trumbull of Connecticut. The original "Brother Jonathan" would not be a bad model at this moment for a Governor of Dalmatia, or of any Slavonic land under the "dual" yoke of Budapest-cum-Vienna.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

EDWARD A. FREEMAN.

NEW YORK, Feb. 7, 1882.

HOOSIER BIBLIOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If there is to be a bibliography of bibliographies, your note of last week contributes certainly a curious instance toward the material for such a work. But I beg that the future compiler of that work may not overlook the 'Catalogue of the Indiana State Library for the year 1880,' which has long been my wonder and admiration. So far is it from attempting the complexity of the *catalogue raisonné*, that its rigorous alphabeticism sets down 'A Manchester Strike' between 'Agriculture' and 'American.' It invites us to such *tours de force* as the 'Autobiography of Sir Simonds D'Ewes, by Halliwell,' and the 'Autobiography of Sir Walter Scott, by Bart.' 'Bank's History of the Popes' appears under the letter B. Strong in the historical department, it offers a choice between the 'Life of John Tyler, by Harper & Brothers,' 'Memoirs of Moses Henderson, by

Jewish Philosophers,' 'Memoirs and Correspondence of Viscount Castlereach, by the Marquis of Londonderry,' and 'Memoirs of Benvenuto, by Gellini.' In fiction, you may find 'Tales of my Landlord, by Cleishbotham,' and 'The Pilot, by the Auditor of the Pioneers'; while, if your passion for plural authorship is otherwise unappeasable—if Beaumont and Fletcher or Erckmann-Chatrian seem to you too feeble a combination of talents—you may well be captivated by the title 'Small Arms, by the United States Army.'

The State of Indiana has undoubtedly learned a good many things since 1859; but, whoever its present librarian may be, it is hardly probable that his highest flight in bibliography has surpassed the catalogue from which I have quoted.

T. B.

ROCHESTER, Feb. 6, 1882.

COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was on the point of mailing a fuller discussion of this subject, when your last issue appeared with the interesting letter from "L. N. D.," stating some facts of which my letter would only be a repetition. Knowing your space is valuable, I shall therefore embody my thoughts in a few short propositions:

1. It seems to me that three stages in a course of education are sufficient. These stages may be named the school, the college, and the university. As it now is, many of our so-called universities are merely schools, while some of our colleges are becoming universities. The cause of this confusion of terms, and of the unsettled state of discipline, is no doubt chiefly found in the constant change and growth of the larger Eastern colleges, and their ambition to hold the chief rank and place among our institutions of learning. This, as the writer from Louisville shows, has led the college into difficulties and inconsistencies in discipline, as well as other things.

2. The name *university* ought to represent an institution where not rudiments but sciences are taught by specialists, and where the learners are responsible young men who have chosen one or more of these sciences for a life-work. Here should be not only *Lernfreiheit*, but *Lehrfreiheit*. This alone can promote the best interests both of the ambitious student and the worthy professor. The laggards among both will be left behind. The opposite system is a premium on idleness and a support of dullards.

3. The college should terminate the general preparatory culture of boys or youths, which, where early advantages have not been wanting, ought to be completed at the age of from eighteen to twenty. It should be an institution for training the mind and disciplining the character, and should not aim to be an institution of learning, in the broad sense of the term. Its teachers should be men of character and manhood rather than profundity of knowledge, good drill-masters rather than deep investigators. They should be able to impart rather than discover truth. The teacher's personal interest in the student should not be diverted by ambition for renown as a scholar, nor the efficiency of his teaching encumbered by large numbers of students. A college in this sense is not only not benefited by, but is inconsistent with large numbers. Its success cannot, and its reputation should not, be dependent on vast libraries and collections, costly apparatus, and thick catalogues. Love of bigness may be pardonable in the dry-goods trade, steamships, and hotels, but not in the training-school for young minds and growing characters. These things should belong to the universities. Here numbers will be a source of

inspiration both to teacher and learner; here complete equipments in every direction will be an aid to free investigation, and not merely a stimulus to vanity.

4. It has been well said that life is too short to spend all the time from childhood to the age of twenty-five or thirty in preparation for a life-work, no matter how exalted or important its nature may be. Preparation too protracted is pernicious (perhaps the "alliteration" here may attract the notice of "A Father"). The "upper story" of a profession is only reached after long years of faithful, plodding practice, and these, under a sense of responsibility to self and to others, constitute the essential preparation for success. If young men are kept in preparatory training-schools, and not allowed to assume the responsibilities of manhood till the blood is chilled and the ambition dampened, the "thoroughness" of preparation defeats its own ends.

5. Instead of decrying the smaller colleges as intruders, I would predict that they will win the day in the end, if they are not led by the false examples of the East to keep adding to their requirements for admission and the "breadth of their curriculum," and wasting their means in showy buildings and in printing advertisements, circulars, and catalogues. If the race for "bigness" and "breadth" continues as it has commenced, the American college will ultimately be left out in the cold. The young men will go from the high school or the academy to the university, and the college will become an aristocratic and leisurely school of "culture" for wealthy young men who have not the patience for discipline or the ambition for action.

The great Eastern colleges have rendered the country eminent practical services, and merit our gratitude and admiration, but they are now fit subjects for conversion. Let them become universities pure and simple, and no longer attempt the impossible task of governing, drilling, and disciplining mature young men with methods suitable for boys, and in classes numbering over a hundred. Such an attempt can be neither "safe" nor successful. The methods and appliances of the university should aim to produce eminent professors rather than successful students. For in free and emulous action the successful professor will lead the ambitious student along without being hampered by him.

These things are not said in a spirit of dogmatic assurance, but from a long-growing conviction. It is not a voice from one of the "feeble Western colleges," but from an individual connected with one which aims with more success than wisdom to equal the Eastern college in "breadth of learning," and with both wisdom and success to maintain its paternal government.

P. H.

BELOIT, WIS., Feb. 6, 1882.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE VS. THE EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to present in your excellent journal a few considerations bearing upon the problems discussed in the editorial of January 19 on Yale and Harvard? The line is there fairly drawn between two opposing systems of education. Harvard has been remarkably successful in imitating the methods of the European university, and Cornell and other schools are following her lead.

The one positive (and commendable) feature of the university is its wide range of electives; beyond this all is negative—no required studies or compulsory attendance, no rules, no responsibility for the moral or even the intellectual improvement of the student. The advantages of this *laissez-faire* system as applied to college

students are not to be overlooked. It is a great relief to the instructor to feel that it is none of his business whether his pupils improve or abuse their opportunities. It stimulates both teacher—or rather professor, for in the university scheme the professor does not condescend to *teach*—it stimulates both professor and pupil to specially fine work in special departments. It has given Germany perhaps the leading position in the intellectual world.

We must remember, however, that German universities correspond rather to our professional schools than to our colleges, and are intended for older students, and designed to give eminence in a single branch rather than general culture. Just here has been their success, and also their failure. It seems to us improbable that any such system can be imported bodily and made to supplant the American college. The latter is a growth indigenous to our soil. Starting with the moral earnestness of the Puritans, it has grown up with other American institutions. It admits of indefinite improvement, but its fundamental ideas, resting upon real human wants, cannot be set aside.

The idea of a curriculum or fixed circle of required studies may be old-fashioned, but so is the multiplication-table. That the required studies may be supplemented by electives all will admit, but to make all studies elective must defeat the very object of a liberal education. Here lies the fallacy of the elective system. It dazzles us with the rich variety of electives, and somehow produces the impression that a student can take them *all* in the four years. Its advocates eagerly point out this and that and the other branch which the student may elect, but they studiously conceal the fundamental and essential branches which the student may omit. A student may graduate from Harvard without studying political economy, English literature, mental or moral philosophy. Natural history is wholly elective. Hitherto logic and outlines of history have been required, but we can all see with President Eliot that there is "reason to believe that the time is not far distant when the few subjects still prescribed for all students will in their turn become elective." The idea that a certain amount of information and a certain familiarity with the lines of thought in each of the leading departments of human knowledge is essential to an education, is wholly ignored. What will Harvard's degree mean? Not that the graduate has been trained in the methods of classical, scientific, and metaphysical thought, and introduced to history, political science, and all the more important branches of study. It will mean simply that he has pursued for four years the studies most agreeable to his yet unformed taste—those which are easiest to him, or which look toward his profession.

There is an immense pressure in our age, and in every age, for superficial education—something to give reputation and polish at the least expense of time and effort. We have scientific, normal, and business schools, each having a legitimate sphere, but each professing to give its patrons all the advantages of a full college course. For these short courses a sort of flat-parchment is given: "This is an educated man—by order of the president and trustees." Now, the elective system is pandering to this very thing. The colleges in which it prevails virtually say to the student: "You cannot afford, you do not need, to spend four years in general culture. You may omit all that is hardest for you, and spend four years in those branches in which you are already most proficient, and which will shorten your professional studies, and we will give you the same degree."

The idea, also, that the college and its instructors must stand in a sense in *loco parentis* has a

justification in the nature of things. The parental relation need not be confounded with that of the policeman or drill-sergeant. Parents who put their sons at an early age into a store or shop desire to know something more of the employer or foreman than that they are successful and efficient in their business. Such men stand in *loco parentis* to the young men under their influence, and ought to have some paternal qualities and some sense of responsibility. How much more the college professor, whose influence is tenfold greater. He is the only friend of mature years the student has. If he feels called upon to expend no part of his energy and ability in stimulating his pupils to diligence, or in dissuading them from folly, but is merely a coleopterist from Dr. Holmes's breakfast-table, he is worth very little to his pupils. He may be a useful and distinguished man, but no college should put him in charge of its undergraduates. The unfledged tutor, if he has still some human sympathy in him, is better than such a professor. In fact, the university knows nothing of those class exercises which Americans call recitations. It gives the student nothing but lectures, which would be far more available in print, and examinations. The real work of education, which the Faculty ignores, is done, and poorly done, by private tutors.

The tendency of any restraint which does not amount to military discipline to stir up opposition is easily overestimated. Such restraint is wholesome in the family; when it is supported in college by the personal influence of instructors whom the students thoroughly respect, its results are most salutary.

It is true that the college needs rarer men for its chairs of instruction than the university—intellect and learning are not enough. It is also true that the size of the school somewhat increases the difficulties of college government. Still, we believe that the schools now conducted on the college plan are fairly successful, and turn out better men, intellectually as well as morally, than those conducted on the university plan.

The university methods have their place in post-graduate courses. We shall all be glad to send our young men to Cambridge or Baltimore after they have completed a thorough curriculum under teachers who really teach, and who feel some responsibility for their welfare; but the American college will not soon be supplanted by the European university. Both are needed. The university is on a par with professional schools, the college is a second home; the university instructs, the college educates.

WILLIAM GOODELL FROST.

CORNER, O., Jan. 23, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The theory of voluntary training propounded in your article entitled "Yale and Harvard" (*Nation*, No. 864) provokes some comment. All education is of course a process of transition from the helpless irresponsibility of infancy to the self-moved independence of manhood. The former shades off steadily into the latter. The question is, How far ought the process to go during the college stage of study? Nature has something to say as to the age at which the average boy should be surrendered wholly to his own guidance. Is it from sixteen to twenty? Yet at college, away from his parents, the boy must be controlled by the college, or not at all, save as he falls into the current of popular opinion and feeling among the students. Is this a competent guide? A community of college students forms a little world of itself, with standards of right and wrong and of propriety often ludicrously at variance

with those prevalent in civilized society; shall the character of the student be surrendered entirely to this authority?

And as to the selection of studies: Are boys from sixteen to twenty years of age qualified by general knowledge and maturity of understanding and judgment to choose freely for themselves? Will they not be likely to select either under the influence of fashion or some other equally invalid consideration, or else the study they like best? In the latter case, a mind by nature somewhat unsymmetrical will be made more so by the effect of elective studies. Not that the principle of division of labor should be finally ignored. There comes a time when the mind should be given up mainly to the work for which nature designed it. But should not a comprehensive and symmetrical foundation first be laid, that the specialist may bring to his work a weight and balance of intellectual action the want of which is often painfully evident in the attitude of the clergy to science, and of science to religion, and in other fields of thought?

Discipline has been regarded as the most vital element, at least in the earlier stages of mental training. But can discipline be attained under a system of complete freedom in conduct and in study? Is there not something gained in character by the habit of obeying orders? Must not the youth first obey orders from without himself? And must not the authority pass but slowly from without to within—to the will itself, but to the will as distinguished from the tastes and desires? Would any amount of hard study, done at the call of attraction, give the will command over the mental faculties, especially attention? If mere attention, as attracted, be sufficient, would not novel-reading be as effective, in a disciplinary point of view, as the study of science or language? In your own fine language ("Chromo-Civilization," *Nation*, No. 482), "Culture, in the only correct and safe sense of the term, is the result of a process of discipline, both mental and moral. It comes by the protracted exercise of the faculties for given ends, under restraints of some kind, whether imposed by one's self or other people. In fact, it might not improperly be called the art of doing easily what you don't like to do." Now, has all this been shown to be a mistake? and if a mistake in the college, what is it in the military school, and in all effective training in art, business, or manual craft? What will West Point say to the theory of voluntary deportment and study? And if nerves are steadied and fibre toughened and order cultivated by obedience and work under authority there, why not elsewhere? An objection is sometimes made to the sameness of prescribed studies for different minds. But here also it may be asked, if this is an evil in college, how as to the same thing in all military, gymnastic, pugilistic, musical—in fact, in all training which deserves the name? Does not this objection, too, arise from confounding the training with the special stage of education?

The free-university system of Europe has been alluded to. But is it certain that the average results of that system are better than, or even as good as those of ours? And may not its best fruits be due to the later stage of culture at which the university takes the student, and the thorough discipline which he has already received in the gymnasium or preparatory school? It is the university, in distinction from the college, that adopts the free system in Europe. Doubtless a certain current of popular feeling is at present in this country setting toward the extreme of freedom in education as in other things. But the laws of nature are very strong, though sometimes unseen by the popular eye. It would be remarkable if the order, the discipline, the law of military organization, which,

from its material and uncompromising nature, conserves itself by the inevitable destruction of the transgressor, should not beget in society a deeper thinking and healthier force, against which, to use your own language again, "the most bumptious youth will hit his head, and be reduced to thoughtfulness and self-examination, and be forced to walk in ways not always to his liking."

In fine, is there not room on this subject for the application of another of your own telling sentences about the value of a type of mind which does not participate too much in the "advanced thinking and general rage for social and political experimentation of the last twenty years"?

C. W. CLAPP.

GODFREY, ILL., Jan., 1882.

[There is a good deal of force in the above objections to the "elective system." The elective system assumes that students are competent to elect, and will elect with reference solely to their own highest intellectual needs or powers, or else that they have parents or guardians who are competent to assist them in electing. In a very large number of cases this assumption is not well founded. The student is often not competent to choose his course, or, if competent, has not the moral strength to choose rightly, or comes from an uneducated family which can give him no advice and exercise no influence over him in this matter. We presume it is safe to say that fully one-half the undergraduates of American colleges are the sons of fathers who are unable to help them in deciding what branches of study will make a college education most valuable to them, either for the purposes of intellectual training or of professional success. But it does not follow from this that, as our correspondent seems to think, there is no alternative except the "curriculum, or fixed circle of required studies"; nor do we think anybody of authority has ever seriously objected to this because it was "old-fashioned." What is needed is something between the "fixed circle" and absolute freedom. In other words, the college should assist the student in selecting, with due regard to his needs and his capacity. The best system would be one in which each student should make up his course under the special supervision or with the special assistance of a professor. But this is probably hardly practicable. If not, the best way out of the difficulty would seem to be the division of the studies into groups or courses, and the restriction of the election to these groups. They might be so made up as to meet the needs of every type of mind sufficiently common to be worth recognition, and would prevent the indulgence of pure laziness, or the total neglect of subjects with which every liberally-educated man should be acquainted.

As regards the "loco-parentis" college for which our correspondent pleads, there is only one thing to be said, and that is, that, however desirable it may be, it does not exist. There are no such colleges as he describes, and no professors who supply the student with "wholesome family restraint." Moreover, it is almost certain that in the present conditions of American life they cannot be created. We cannot find the professors competent to be parents to the undergraduates, or find the

undergraduates ready to accept professors as parents. One of the most singular delusions of our time is the notion prevalent among American fathers and mothers that they can secure this restraint in small colleges and in colleges where the faculty is religious. Small country colleges doubtless offer fewer temptations and attract students bred in simpler homes than the large ones, but they are also compelled to put up with an inferior quality of instructors and inferior instruction. As regards the large ones, we shall simply say that a boy is notoriously just as "safe"—and we believe safer—in those which are trying hardest to be universities as in those which are trying hardest to stay colleges, and that the influence of the professor diminishes in the direct ratio of his eagerness to exert parental authority.

Nor does all this conflict with what another correspondent, Mr. Clapp, says about the value of discipline. With most of what he says we most heartily agree. But the ordinary American college does not supply this discipline; no school in the country does, except West Point. The others profess to supply something of this kind, but they do not supply it, and it is time that parents got over thinking that they do, and got over sending to college for the four best years of their lives young men for whom they greatly desire it.—ED. NATION.]

THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE AND THE TITLE TO THE PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I quite agree with you in your criticisms upon the "bill which a committee of the House of Representatives is said to favor," providing for a reference to the courts of a disputed title to the Presidential office. All experience, notably in the case of the "Electoral Commission," demonstrates the futility of expecting a non-partisan decision from partisan judges upon a political question of vital interest to political parties. But that is not the worst of it. You not only get a partisan decision in the particular case, but you lower the tone of the judiciary, and shake public confidence in the courts. You do not clarify or purify a political muddle by dragging the ermine through it, and the ermine only comes out of it just so much the worse for wear.

The fact is, common sense dictates the final abandonment of the pleasing dream that such a thing is possible as ever obtaining from any tribunal, however constituted, a strictly judicial sentence upon such an issue as that presented by a disputed succession to the crown, the imperial purple, or even the Chief Magistracy for four years of a republic fifty millions strong. The pressure is too vast for any human resistance. Could you trust a Holt, could you trust a Hardwicke, a Mansfield, a Marshall, a Story, a Taney, a Chase, to give a perfectly unbiassed judgment in a cause which directly involved the victory or defeat of their party and their friends? To state the question is to answer it.

We do not want to bring our judiciary into contempt. We do want a prompt and final settlement of a disputed title to the Presidency. We must have it, or take all the chances of civil war. But we can get no such settlement except on partisan considerations. With these principles in view, let us look to find where the power can be most conveniently and appropriately lodged.

Not in Congress, for that would make the Executive a mere creature of the Congressional caucus, and destroy the symmetry of the whole system.

If not in the courts, if not in Congress, where then? The only answer is, either in the Electoral Colleges of the several States, or in a college of colleges composed of all the electors of all the States.

The latter strikes me the more favorably, but would require a Constitutional amendment. Objection is often made to the whole system of electors as a failure. That is correct, as the system is now working. But it is an admirable framework for a self-adjusting machine for deciding election contests.

The points which the proposed amendment would cover are as follows:

1. The district system for individual electors, and two electors-at-large for each State.
2. Congress to regulate by law the time and manner of giving notice of contest in any case, taking testimony, etc., as is now the case with respect to contested seats in Congress.
3. All the electors to meet in college at the seat of Government a sufficient time after the election to allow for taking of testimony in all cases of contest.
4. The Electoral College to be the "judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members," and to choose its own officers.
5. The Electoral College to choose a President and Vice-President of the United States by ballot; and in case both offices become vacant during the term, the same Electoral College to be convened to fill such vacancies for the residue of the term.

By some such system as this the whole problem of a disputed succession would be solved by the settlement of individual contests for seats in the College, and there would be nothing for courts to decide. Of course all such contests would be settled pretty much upon partisan grounds, just as they have always been by Congress and even by judges; but the settlement would be had, nevertheless, and that it would be found on the side of the apparent majority for the time being would be really the best guarantee for a general acquiescence in the result.

This plan of course involves expense. Mileage and per diem would follow as a necessary incident. As an insurance premium against a heavy war risk, the expenditure would be an economy. The office of an elector would be more desirable and attractive, and men of experience and ability would as a rule be the candidates for the office. Members of Congress should be ineligible. The powers of the Electoral College should be expressly limited to the objects specified.

C. E. P.

BALTIMORE, MD.

THE GENEVA AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly state through the columns of the *Nation* whether there is any reason whatever why the Hon. Charles Francis Adams should not, in response to an open and direct appeal to him, declare, in his official character as ex-Commissioner representing the United States in the Geneva arbitration, whether that body acted upon "national" claims only, or whether they did not discuss, decide upon, and award satisfaction of the claims of private citizens of the United States against the Government of Great Britain? The bill just introduced into the House of Representatives rests its entire equity upon the assertion that the tribunal discussed only "national" claims, and private claimants were only witnesses on behalf of the United States in their action for trespass. The word of Mr. Adams would settle this question beyond

contradiction. Is there any valid reason why he should not give it? G.

BALTIMORE, MD., February 11, 1882.

[The same suggestion was made editorially in the *Nation* (July 27, 1876), in the following terms:

"There is, however, an easy way of settling all disputed points about this Geneva Bill which never seems to have occurred to our correspondents, and which we strongly advise them to take, promising ourselves to abide by the result. When the United States decided to submit its claims against England to arbitration, it appointed as its own member of the court Mr. Charles Francis Adams, who, as our correspondents are aware, was familiar with the history of our whole case from the beginning, and had very strong opinions as to England's liability. He is thoroughly conversant with all the principles and facts involved, and with the whole course of the deliberations of the Geneva Court. He knows, if anybody does, whether the tribunal had before it the claims of insurance companies or not; whether in the award they were treated as having any rights; and whether there was any understanding that the Government could do what it pleased with the money. If Congress had ever really desired to find out what the national honor and a decent regard for the opinion of mankind required them to do with the fund, the first person they would have gone to for information would have been Mr. Adams. They would have inquired of him, Were or were not the insurance claims included in the award? Did the tribunal which interpreted the Treaty of Washington render their decision as final, or did they expect every single point decided in it to be reversed by act of Congress? If our correspondents want to know about this, let them go to Mr. Adams and ask him, and if he does not inform them that they are engaged in helping on a monumental swindle, we are greatly mistaken."

To this a correspondent of the *Nation* answered:

"There is something almost funny in the suggestion contained in your article on the Geneva Bill, that Congress should have inquired of Mr. C. F. Adams whether insurance claims were included in the Geneva Award. Mr. Adams is a good lawyer, and his embarrassment at being called upon to answer the question without showing too plainly the simplicity of the questioners would have made the job the most delicate of his life. He could only have said in substance, clothed, of course, in official phrase, that this submission to arbitration was like all others from the time when the memory of man runneth not, etc., in one respect—to wit, it was in writing, and that the judgment upon the submission was likewise in writing; that these, with a journal of proceedings of the Tribunal, constitute what is called its record, and that the said record imports absolute verity. What it shows to have been submitted was submitted, and all else was not submitted, although every member of the court might solemnly aver that it was. What it shows to have been determined and passed upon and considered, was so determined, passed upon, and considered, and nothing else, although the whole court and all who were in attendance upon it were to say otherwise. This answer would doubtless have displeased you, but it would nevertheless have been the only one Mr. Adams could have made, unless he chose to violate all the proprieties."

To this again the editor replied: "No; it would not have displeased us. It would be exactly what we contend for. The submission was in writing, and so is the award, and neither is, or ever was, or ought to be, in the breast of Messrs. Frye, Butler, or Hale"—i. e., in the breast of Congress. It is now to be further observed regarding the assertion that "the Tribunal discussed only national claims, and private claimants were only witnesses on behalf of the United States," that it is false from beginning to end. There is not one scintilla of truth in it. The private claims were presented as private claims as distinctly as language could make them, and the national claims as national claims. Some of the former were

allowed; all of the latter were rejected. The distinction between the two classes was made and discussed before the Tribunal. Any one who now, with knowledge of the facts, says it was not, would say anything.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. will publish this spring the third and fourth volumes of Lecky's 'History of the 19th Century'; Bain's 'Lives of James and John Stuart Mill'; Huxley's 'Science and Culture, and other Essays'; 'Physical Education,' by Dr. Felix L. Oswald; the 'Bryant Birthday Book'; 'Errors in the Use of English,' by W. B. Hodgson; 'The Metropolitan Museum of Art,' an illustrated quarto; a new translation, by Jehu Baker, of Montesquieu's 'Grandeur and Decadence of the Romans'; 'Capital and Population,' by F. B. Hawley; and a text-book with a taking title, a 'Geographical Reader,' by James Johannot.—G. P. Putnam's Sons announce an illustrated volume of travel by Mr. S. S. Cox—'From Po to Pyramid by way of Palestine,' as the alliterative title reads; and 'Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life,' by the Rev. S. Kettlewell.—A new 'Life of Daniel Webster,' by the Rev. H. N. Hudson, will bear the imprint of Little, Brown & Co.—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish directly a 'Life of Copley,' by the late Mrs. Charles Amory, one of the painter's descendants; a new and complete edition of Bret Harte's works; and 'Evenings with a Reviewer,' by the late James Spedding.—Roberts Brothers have in press five lectures by William Morris, called 'Hopes and Fears for Art.'—'Saunterings in Europe,' by the Rev. Charles Wood, of Albany, is announced by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.—Among new periodicals we notice the prospectus of the *Illustrated Quarterly of Medicine and Surgery*, edited by Drs. George Henry Fox and Frederic R. Sturgis, and published by E. B. Treat, at No. 757 Broadway; the first number of Judge Tourgée's illustrated weekly, *Our Continent* (Philadelphia), which seems to us a very odd conception, whether considered from a literary or a typographical point of view; and early numbers of Dr. Sauvage's fortnightly *Les Récréations Philologiques*, which is published at 74 West Thirty-fifth Street, New York. The original feature of the last-named journal is that it prints contributed translations into French—e. g., of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' and 'The Lady of Lyons.' As it happens, the current number of M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* contains the beginning of a French version of Aldrich's 'Marjorie Daw.' The editor also reprints, with some condensation, a late criticism in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of the Howells-James views of Americans abroad.—L. Prang & Co. send us samples of valentine cards intended to elevate the art of these missives, and the major part of them may have a reformatory effect. Still, when catering for young children, the designers have not always observed the line between innocence and sophistication; and generally the legends and poetic adjuncts need literary censorship.—'Æstheticism' is one of the topics in the Providence Public Library's Monthly Reference List for January.—L. W. Schmidt sends us the sixth and concluding part of Stacke's popular 'Deutsche Geschichte,' which covers the period from the accession of Frederic William III. to the throne to the end of the war with France in 1870-71. Princess and Queen Luise appears in a variety of pictures of the royal family, one of which shows the present Emperor as a little boy. While on the whole the illustrations are both more sparse and less curious than in the preceding parts, there is a fine array of portraits of the

men who raised up the fallen Prussia—Vom Stein, Hardenberg, Scharnhorst, Gneisenau, Blücher, along with the luckless Schill, Andreas Hofer, W. von Humboldt, Metternich, a striking likeness of Bismarck in 1847, Moltke, Von Roon, etc., etc. In the Napoleonic contest Leipzig naturally receives the most illustration from contemporary prints. Add to the foregoing a facsimile of the *Schlesische Zeitung* of March 20, 1813, containing the royal announcement of the alliance with Russia, and a map showing the historical development of Prussia. The completed work pictorially can never become "out of date."—From the same source we have received parts 3 to 7, inclusive, of the current edition of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon.' Here the important geographical articles are Afghanistan, Africa, Algeria, and Egypt. There are excellent maps of North America, the Alps, and the Antilles; and the illustrations include American Antiquities, and Apes.—*Le Lièvre* for January (J. W. Bouton) exchanges its gray cover for one of blue, with a new design in a kindred tint. Various initial letters, and some more or less happily conceived headpieces marking the standing departments, give an altered aspect to this magazine. In illustrations the foremost piece is the Rouen Museum's portrait of Corneille, by the painter Philippe de Champaigne, now for the first time engraved. The text gives weighty reasons for prizing this likeness more than Le Brun's, which has been generally followed in myriad reproductions. To a limited extent, indeed, the article will serve as a Corneillian iconography. More interesting than M. T. de Mare's reduced *eau-forte* after one of Boucher's illustrations of Molière, is Toby Johannot's vignette for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1830, with its lank female personifications of the Old World and the New. How far away it seems from the "fleshy school" of art now fashionable.—A paragraph in an Athens newspaper announces the discovery of a very ancient MS. of the 'Iliad' at Mount Athos. It is a papyrus roll, and purports to have been copied by Theophrastus, an Athenian, in the 117th Olympiad, when Simonides was archon—that is, in 311 B. C.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have published in more than one size and style an 'Analytical Index to the Works of Nathaniel Hawthorne.' To this is prefixed a minute account of his life and of his productions in chronological sequence. The task has been well performed, and lays the public under a lasting obligation. But one thing is left to Hawthorne's admirers, and that is to prepare a vocabulary indicating the range of his masterly English.—The first and second series of 'Every-Day Topics' continue the Messrs. Scribner's uniform edition of the late Dr. Holland's works.—Mr. Rolfe's illustrated, annotated, and expurgated edition of Shakspeare (Harpers) has just had the "Merry Wives of Windsor" added to it.—Leypoldt & Jones's 'Books of All Time'—a pocket *catalogue raisonné* in which "scarcely an author is given whose works are not counted among the treasures of literature," and which embraces not less than twenty-five American poets, will be found serviceable as a guide to editions, etc. The title is a little pretentious, and may be misleading, as if it were "Books for All Time." Mr. Leypoldt has also issued a pretty 'Reading Diary,' in the line of fiction alone, bolstering up the weak-kneed by a preliminary citation of respectable authority in favor of novel-reading. A carefully selected list of authors and works follows, with room for noting the name of the friend who recommended it, and the diarist's own judgment after reading.—A. C. Armstrong & Son have reprinted Miss Gordon-Cumming's entertaining 'At Home in Fiji,' already reviewed in these columns. The two

volumes have been compressed into one, but otherwise the work appears to be unchanged.

—Dr. James A. Emmerton, of Salem, Mass., has printed privately a volume of 'Materials' toward a genealogy of the not numerous family bearing the name (generally spelled with a single m). It is a cautious and solid work, resting nowhere on conjecture, and not establishing an English connection. Several members of the two leading American stocks, whose relationship is undetermined, have achieved distinction in science, scholarship, and otherwise. —The eighth volume of Collections of the Maine Historical Society is the first publication since the well-advised removal from Brunswick to Portland. Its contents, both historical and biographical, are mainly local, or contributions to New England history; but exception must be made of Dr. Israel Washburn's paper on the settlement of the Northeastern Boundary, which, though written nearly three years ago, has, in consequence of the late Webster celebration, a certain timeliness. The Society has in press the 'Trelawny Papers.' —The 2,000th volume of the Tauchnitz Collection of British Authors (Leipzig: Bernhard Tauchnitz; New York: F. W. Christern) was expressly made commemorative of the progress of the series, and Professor Henry Morley was selected to write 'Of English Literature in the Reign of Victoria, with a Glance at the Past.' The "glance at the past" occupies nearly a quarter of the book. The author's proper theme is treated, of course, with great succinctness, but with much dexterity and perfect readability. The chronological arrangement is ingenious, beginning with the literary veterans whose lives and sometimes productions overlapped the year 1837, and then coming down to their juniors by decades until we find ourselves among "Men of the Times." Carlyle has the better part of a chapter to himself—eighteen pages, against one to Ruskin, four to Macaulay, ten to Dickens, etc. Baron Tauchnitz has prefixed to this convenient summary nearly complete "facsimiles of the signatures of authors in the Tauchnitz edition, photographed from their correspondence and agreements" with himself. American authors are freely represented here. The Messrs. Putnam, by the way, have announced their intention to reprint this work of Professor Morley's.

—The recent suspension of Antioch College has called forth comments in various quarters marked at once by ignorance and unfriendliness. It is the second time that this college has suspended its work, and both times the cause has been the same—the cause of most such suspensions—the want of funds. The college was founded by the Christian denomination (not that known as Campbellite); and as this denomination is anti-Trinitarian in its theology, some assistance was obtained from Eastern Unitarians, and two Unitarians in succession—Horace Mann and Thomas Hill—occupied its presidency. But it never was adequately endowed, and when the war came it went to the ground, as many smaller institutions did at that time. After the war it was conveyed directly to the Unitarian body, who raised a fund for its support, and opened its doors again in 1865. The Christians still retained some control over it, members of this denomination composing a minority of the Board of Trustees. But now, again, the endowment was inadequate: the college was reorganized on the scale of the endowment that was hoped and expected, but when it was once in operation, it was found that no more money could be raised, and in 1896 began that succession of "shrinkages" which have ended at last in a second suspension. Under the presidency of Dr. Hosmer, President Orton, now of the Ohio State University, and Professor Derby, of the same institution,

it struggled along until a large part of its fund, unfortunately invested, ceased to yield any income; under these circumstances there was nothing to do but to close the doors and allow the funds to accumulate. Meantime it has maintained a high standard of scholarship and instruction, and has ranked in the popular estimation far higher than the majority of Western colleges. The character of its Faculty is illustrated by the fact that it is hard to mention a member of it who is not now, if alive, connected with some institution of high rank. We need only mention President Orton and Professor Derby, of Ohio, and Professors Russel of Brown (late of Cornell), Clark of Yale, Hall of Williams, Chandler of Cornell, Langley of Michigan, Allen of Wisconsin, Anthony of Iowa, and Hosmer of Washington (St. Louis). As to the theological tone of the administration, it is enough to say that Presidents Hill, Hosmer, and Orton all belonged to what is known as the conservative wing of the Unitarian body. The complaint, therefore, that the prevailing influences have been anti-Christian has no weight except with those who would deny to these men the Christian name. But the fact is that the spirit of the institution, at least since its reorganization, has been more in harmony with the Harvard than the Yale theory, as defined in the *Nation* of January 19; but this theory of education is sure to be pronounced "ungodly" and "unchristian" by those who prefer the other system. It is certain, at any rate, that this did not materially affect the attendance, for when the college was reopened in 1895 as distinctively Unitarian, the numbers and the success of the first year promised a rapid growth. Of course the partial collapse the next summer put an end to all such hopes.

—What is called, for want of a better name, the "dictionary catalogue" has got a foothold in Germany. Gustav Wolf in Leipzig has published a 'Medicinisches Vademecum' (which has already reached a second edition), a 'Juristisches-staatswissenschaftliches Vademecum,' and a 'Theologisches Vademecum,' "in which the book-titles," says Petzholdt, "after the American custom, are mingled in a sort of name and subject index, which presents to the public the matters which it seeks in the way best adapted for finding them." This, from a conservative German—one of the high-priests of the straitest sect of bibliography—is remarkable. In this country German and Germanizing critics have objected to the "dictionary catalogue" its unscientific mixing of name, subject, and title in one alphabet—a practice which one man declared threw him into such confusion of mind that he could make no use of the catalogue. Probably, after all, Petzholdt would agree with this so far as to repudiate utterly the hybrid genus in a work intended for the learned; but for the "public," who cannot be expected to have such nice sensibilities, nor to be able to puzzle through the intricacies of a strict scientific arrangement, the alphabetical plan is good enough. Another American practice, that of including references to the separate parts of collected works, is followed by Dr. Brunnhofer in the lately published subject-catalogue of the Aargau Cantonal Library, which exceeds 1,000 pages. We have called it an American practice, but the Italians may claim the priority. Ilari's catalogue of the Siena Public Library is very full in this respect. In this country it was first used to any extent in Prof. Abbot's card-catalogue of Harvard College Library; and the first one published in which it appears is that of the Boston Athenæum, which is just completing at once its alphabet and its decennium of printing. The Brooklyn Library, the Mercantile of San Francisco, and the Library of the Surgeon-

General's Office, are the only others that have done much work of this kind. Their references are mainly to periodicals, while Dr. Brunnhofer's are especially to the great collections, like Grævius, Gronovius, Pertz, and other *Sammelwerke*, such as we gave a list of on Dec. 22 and 29. Petzholdt expresses some doubts whether the Swiss librarian's successors will be willing to follow up his work in the same laborious and costly style.

—The late Saint-René Taillandier had contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* various essays on the modern revival of Provençal poetry, of which the "Mirèio" of M. Mistral is the best-known example, and he had intended to work these papers over into a connected study of the movement from its origin to the present. He died without doing so, and the scattered essays have just been gathered together to fill the final half of a volume called 'Études Littéraires' (Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern), the first pages of which contain a more nearly complete sketch of the life of Boursault, the only one of Molière's literary adversaries whom he deigned to notice on the stage directly and by name. In this sketch, which he called "Un Poète comique du temps de Molière," M. Taillandier shows that Boursault was instigated to his attack on Molière by other and older enemies, and that he speedily forgave and forgot Molière's contemptuous retort, for he took occasion to praise the great humorist after his death in lines of ample eulogy, although not of as much poetic worth to us as they seem to have been to M. Taillandier. The chief value of this half of the 'Études Littéraires' is in the light it sheds incidentally on the condition and circumstances of literary and dramatic life in France in Molière's day, and immediately thereafter. There is not much warmth in M. Taillandier's work, but it is painstaking and accurate.

—A fresh proof of the vitality of the new Japanese civilization reaches us in the form of the "Third Annual Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department." That the registration statistics are based on a defective system of nomenclature is to be regretted. The absence of the titles "scarlatina" and "typhus maculosus" is noteworthy, and excites a question whether the diseases themselves are unknown in Japan. It is also questionable whether the mortality rates are to be trusted. But even this attempt is wonderful, in a country where most of the practitioners of medicine belong to the ancient school, and only a few hundred among 23,000 are as yet supplied from the school at Tokio. The very fact that statistics of mortality are attempted is a proof of a spirit not to be daunted by the most difficult problems. It is interesting to find 1,659,298 cases of vaccination recorded during six months, and a percentage of 32.48 of success in cases of revaccination. The most curious bits of information are those relating to the traffic in patent or secret remedies (mostly harmless in their nature), which are sold to an extent justly deprecated; there being recorded 10,576 different kinds sold by their makers, 226,835 sold by retailers, and 173,070 by travelling peddlers. The document was printed in 1881, though the period covered terminated on June 30, 1878.

—Many persons have felt the need of a brief and comprehensive treatise upon Roman antiquities which should contain the latest results of scholarship, without the minuteness of detail which characterizes the great works of Mommsen and Marquardt, and of Lange. It will probably be a long time before any book in the English language meets this want; but fortunately most scholars can make use of either French or German, and each of these languages affords a book of the desired character. Willems's 'Droit

Public Romain' is no doubt the best and most complete brief treatise that exists. For the German language the veteran J. N. Madvig—distinguished alike as grammarian, editor, and antiquarian—published last year the first volume of a work entitled 'Verfassung und Verwaltung des Römischen Staates.' This volume contains the whole of the Constitution (*Verfassung*) properly so called; the other volume, to be published this year, is to contain the administration (*Verwaltung*)—the military, financial, judicial, etc., departments of the state. It may be remarked that none of the great treatises—neither Lange, nor Becker-Marquardt, nor even Mommsen-Marquardt as yet—covers the whole of the ground. Madvig's qualifications for his task are illustrated by the fact that he was the discoverer of one of the most fundamental principles of classification as regards the Roman colonies and *municipia*. His point of view in the present volume is, on the whole, a conservative one. He holds (p. 89), against Mommsen, that the patricians were the exclusive occupants of the public land, and refuses to recognize, as even Lange has done at last, that the plebeian tribal assembly was a different assembly from the *Comitia Tributa*, composed of patricians and plebeians alike (p. 234). On the other hand, he agrees with Mommsen that the plebeians belonged to the *Comitia Curiata* (p. 99), and to the Senate of the early Republic (p. 125), and that the *patrum auctoritas* was a special power of the patrician members of the Senate (p. 234). On the whole this book will be found a safe guide to the subject. It is, however, hard to consult, consisting of long paragraphs, without helps either in the margin or at the top of the page. It is to be hoped that the next volume will contain an index.

—The promise of a new symphony and the reappearance in New York of Mrs. E. A. Osgood at the fourth concert of the Philharmonic Society raised anticipations of an unusually attractive entertainment, which, however, were not fully realized. The new symphony was by Hans Huber, a young Swiss composer whom a majority of the audience on this occasion probably heard of for the first time, although his symphony is numbered opus 63. In giving this work the sub-

Tell," Herr Huber boldly incurred a double responsibility by making it incumbent on the critic to judge it not merely from a purely musical point of view, but also in reference to the appropriateness of its title. And it may be stated at once that if the printer had by mistake substituted Napoleon Bonaparte or Julius Cæsar for Tell, nobody would have known the difference. Opponents of programme music continually assert that if any descriptive hint is to be given at all on the programme, it is best to limit it to the title simply, and not to give an extended description of the scenes the music is supposed to illustrate. It is just the other way. If a composer has written a work under the inspiration he received from witnessing or imagining some particular pictorial scene or historical event, the audience will always gain an advantage by having this scene just as vividly brought before their minds. This can only be done by giving a brief and pregnant description of it either in prose or poetry. A series of emotions will be aroused by this description which will greatly increase the enjoyment of the music, for the reason that music is never so effective as when we are already in a state of emotional excitement or depression. We do not know whether Herr Huber has written an analysis of his symphony. If he has, it should have been printed; if not, he might as well have omitted the title too. Otherwise, the symphony is a work of considerable merit. Its logic—i. e., the inferences drawn from one chord to another—and the treat-

ment of the melody, are modern. The same is true of the instrumentation, which is rich and full, but not sufficiently varied. Indeed, a want of variety is the greatest defect of the symphony regarded as a whole, neither the movements nor the individual ideas being sufficiently contrasted or original to subdue a slight sense of monotony. The opening allegro is characterized by a vigorous movement which has some of the bracing effect of mountain air, but it is surpassed in poetic beauty by the following adagio, the instrumentation of which is particularly fine. The two remaining movements are down hill. Mozart's D major Symphony (No. 5, ed. Breitkopf & Härtel), and the minuet and finale of Beethoven's string quartet No. 9 in C, were the other orchestral numbers. Mrs. Osgood sang alone, "Ah, That my Heart's Blest Freedom," from Gluck's "Armide," and with Mr. Toedt the duet, "O Teresa," from Berlioz's "Benvenuto Cellini," in which nothing is more remarkable than the truly marvellous and inexhaustible originality of the instrumental combinations. Mr. Toedt's voice was not in prime condition, but Mrs. Osgood sang her part with the purity of intonation, grace, and natural simplicity which made her a general favorite in England during her absence from this country.

BISHOP THIRLWALL.

Essays, Speeches, and Sermons. By Connop Thirlwall, D.D., late Lord Bishop of St. David's. Edited by J. J. Stewart Perowne, D.D., Dean of Peterborough and Honorary Chaplain to Her Majesty. 1880.

Letters to a Friend. By Connop Thirlwall. Edited by Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. 1881.

Letters, Literary and Theological, of Connop Thirlwall. Edited by J. J. Stewart Perowne, D.D., Dean of Peterborough, and the Rev. Louis Stokes, B.A., Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. With Annotations, etc., by the Rev. Louis Stokes. 1881. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

CAN it be a mere accident that Thirlwall's most elaborate piece of literary criticism is an essay on irony? We find it difficult to believe that the subtle analysis of Sophoclean irony was not, unconsciously of course, dictated by a deeper feeling than the mere desire to explain the essential characteristic of the most perfect, if not the greatest, of Greek tragedians. It is impossible not to suspect that Thirlwall's true motive for the profound study of a moral and literary quality the full significance of which escapes thousands of readers, lay in the interest with which every reflective being regards, whether knowingly or not, the peculiarities of his own nature. Criticism often becomes self-portraiture. The article on the irony of Sophocles throws curious light on the genius, and even on the career, of Thirlwall. We doubt whether it would be possible for the most ingenious of critics to paint one aspect of Thirlwall's mental attitude more forcibly and more truly than in these words:

"There is always a slight cast of irony in the grave, calm, respectful attention impartially bestowed by an intelligent judge on two contending parties, who are pleading their causes before him with all the earnestness of deep conviction and of excited feeling. What makes the contrast interesting is, that the right and the truth lie on neither side exclusively; that there is no fraudulent purpose, no gross imbecility of intellect, on either; but both have plausible claims and specious reasons to allege, though each is too much blinded by prejudice or passion to do justice to the views of his adversary. For here the irony lies not in the demeanor of the judge, but is deeply seated in the case itself, which

seems to favor each of the litigants, but really eludes them both."

Here is, one might fancy, an exact description of the position of the Bishop of St. David's when called upon to deal with the plausible claims and specious reasons put forward by High Churchmen, by Low Churchmen, or by Latitudinarians, before the calm and unbiassed tribunal of his judgment. Newman and Littledale, Williams and Baden-Powell, Bishop Colenso and Archdeacon Denison—a score of other men more or less famous and more or less fanatical—each at one time or another appears as an excited litigant, attempting to gain the approbation or support of the grave, calm, judicial intellect which gives to the case of each of the enthusiasts, pleading his own cause with the earnestness of deep conviction, "respectful attention" and, it must be added, "nothing more than attention." For the irony of the judgment-seat contains one element which, oddly enough, is not noticed by Thirlwall. To the litigants the matter at issue seems one of life and death; to the serene magistrate the cause which he decides may have speculative interest, but is of no personal importance. Add to Thirlwall's analysis this overlooked element, and you have a perfect picture, not perhaps of his real, but assuredly of his apparent, attitude toward the earnest theological reactionists or theological innovators whose tenets are stated, criticised, and refuted in elaborate charges which, unlike most episcopal compositions, are racy with all the flavor of thoughtful irony, expressed with something approaching literary perfection.

"There is, however, an irony which deserves to be distinguished from the ordinary species by a different name, and which may properly be called *dialectic irony*. This, instead of being concentrated in insulated passages, and rendered prominent by its contrast with the prevailing tone of the composition, pervades every part, and is spread over the whole like a transparent vesture closely fitted to every limb of the body."

If this had not been written by Thirlwall, the conjecture would at least be plausible that the passage was a fragment from a critique on Thirlwall's own style. Of him, if of any one, it is true that the style was the man. But the essay which affords the very language that most appropriately reproduces the impression made by the intellectual attitude, no less than by the literary manner, of an author who, beyond all others of his age, lays claim, as it were of right, to credit for judicial gravity and weightiness, also supplies the conception which does not solve, but which certainly does describe, the enigma of the Bishop's career.

"Without departing from the analogy which pervades the various kinds of verbal irony, we may speak of a *practical irony*, which is independent of all forms of speech, and needs not the aid of words. Life affords as many illustrations of this as conversation and books of the other."

There is something in this utterance almost prophetic. The irony of Thirlwall's intellect, the irony of his style, are all as nothing compared with the practical irony of his life. No one will deem this language exaggerated who meditates on the singularities of Thirlwall's career; who compares the splendid promise of his youth and manhood with the apparently inadequate results achieved by extraordinary talents, high character, and exalted position, and who perceives that, as far as observers can judge, the one great external success of Thirlwall's life was in large measure the source of its apparent failure.

Thirlwall was richly endowed by nature. Literary talent with him, as with Macaulay, was not the result of training or labor, but of inborn capacity for clothing thought in appropriate language. At the age of thirteen he wrote better than most men write at twenty.

He was born in 1797, and on the 4th of January, 1810, he writes to a school friend :

"If you have visited Oxford, you have seen, in spite of what I said of my father's prepossessions, by far the finest of the two universities. You should, as I have done, have seen Cambridge first. Its inferiority would not then have appeared so striking. I shall belong to the former. Your conjecture respecting Kirke-White is, I think, a very probable one. He would have been a second Cowper, although he might not have enjoyed so long the use of his transcendent powers. From such studies and from such honors may I always be free. I prefer a long life a thousand times to such immortality."

This letter savors, it is true, a little of the pomposity of precocious youth, but it was the rare mark of Thirlwall's genius that early maturity was in him consistent with permanent strength. We can more than half pardon the parental folly of printing the writings of a boy of eleven when we know that the capacity of the boy was not the result of too early development, and foretold the intellectual powers of the man.

Nor was Thirlwall's knowledge inferior to his literary skill. His life was, from youth to age, a life of reading and study. His recreations were what to other men would have been severe labor. Of science he knew nothing, but it may fairly be said that of all other branches of study—of history, of philology, of philosophy, of divinity—he had not only profound knowledge, but, what is a very different thing, a real and substantial command. He was not oppressed by his own erudition. No one could say of him that "the coals had put out the fire." The brightness of his genius was not overweighted by the weightiness of the material accumulated by his energy. People forgot the vastness and accuracy of his information in respect for his judgment and admiration for his logical powers. John Mill's tribute to his genius as a speaker is well known, but bears repetition :

"The speaker with whom I was most struck, though I dissented from nearly every word he said, was Thirlwall the historian. . . . then a Chancery barrister, unknown except by a high reputation for eloquence acquired at the Cambridge Union before the era of Austin and Macaulay. His speech was in answer to one of mine. Before he had uttered ten sentences I set him down as the best speaker I had ever heard, and I have never since heard any one whom I placed above him."

The Bishop's speech on Jewish disabilities, or his speech on the disestablishment of the Irish Church, is conclusive proof that Mill's language is not the expression of reminiscences tinged and falsified by the enthusiasm of youth. The eloquence of perfect argument belonged to Thirlwall from his earliest to his latest days. That perfect command of all the instruments of logic which Mill acquired under the arduous and unceasing discipline of his father, was with Thirlwall the free gift of nature.

Power of literary expression, immense learning, and logical acumen may yet occasionally be possessed by persons deficient in judgment, wanting in insight, and incapable of that self-control which enables a man to direct his own life. It is not possible to believe that Thirlwall suffered from any of these deficiencies. It is not possible to write or speak of him without a too frequent use of the word judicial. The universal belief of his friends that, had he kept to the bar, he would have become preëminent among the great judges of England, is one of those prophecies which, though never put to the test of experience, would, one may feel certain, have, if so tried, met with its fulfillment. His mind was open to light. His interest in Niebuhr, his translation of Schleiermacher, showed that he turned naturally toward the new thought and the new feeling of his age.

But if there was one quality in which, to judge by his early letters, he seemed preëminent, it was the power to direct his own steps, to work out his appropriate destiny, to be master of his fate. All his judicial powers were brought to the selection of his profession. He found the bar distasteful and unsuited to a life of thought, literature, and study. He was free from vulgar ambition ; and he chose the Church as his profession not, as we gather from Mr. Perowne, under any violent impulse of excited feeling, but under the deliberate conviction that in the discharge of clerical duties he would find the appropriate sphere for his moral and intellectual activity. He adopted the career of the priest and the student, and it is no discredit to Thirlwall to believe, what every expression he uses and the whole course of his life until he became a bishop proves, that he sought the position of a priest in great part because clerical duties were, on his view, easily compatible with the noble duties of a serious and earnest student. Even the friends who deplored his retirement from the bar may have felt during the years of Thirlwall's life at Kirby Underdale that his deep judicial wisdom had led him to select his proper path, and many, though not, one would think, all, of his admirers may have fancied that Thirlwall's promotion to a bishopric sealed the wisdom of his choice. Yet it is at this very point that the true and almost painful irony of his career begins.

When the crisis of Thirlwall's career came he was not master of his fate. The caprice or the public spirit of Lord Melbourne changed and fixed the whole tenor of Thirlwall's existence. He had never sought promotion. The *nolo episcopari* was in his mouth perfectly sincere. His first impulse when offered a bishopric was to refuse. "He was anxious to complete his 'History of Greece,' and was meditating a visit to the land of art and song during the autumn. It is said to have taken all the power of suasion of his friends to make him agree to be a bishop." He did agree, and, we may fairly conjecture, agreed against his own judgment ; yet his very interview with Melbourne must have warned even a less sagacious person of his error :

"Very glad to see you ; sit down, sit down. Hope you are come to say you accept. I only wish you to understand that I don't intend, if I know it, to make a heterodox bishop. I don't like heterodox bishops. As men, they may be very good anywhere else, but I don't think they have any business on the bench."

This was the language of the clever *pocourante*, worldly, good-natured old premier, who probably thought a good income, a seat in the House of Lords, and a dignified position the deserved reward for the liberalism of one among the very few theologians who forty years ago were inclined to protest against bigotry. Lord Melbourne's sagacity was not at fault. The translator of Schleiermacher's 'St. Luke' did not turn out a heterodox bishop. We cannot doubt that he accepted the see of St. David's with perfect honesty, and cannot but regret that George Eliot should, if rumor be correct, have been the person to charge the Bishop of St. David's with having found in the path which leads to a bishopric "a royal road to orthodox faith." But it is clear, as far as human judgment can penetrate into the mysteries of human conduct, that Thirlwall, when he yielded to the persuasion of Lord Melbourne, wandered from the path of wisdom. From that moment his career became filled with contradictions. A student and a thinker, he was compelled to undertake the work of administration. He had at once to turn from the study of divinity, or the composition of history, to writing letters like the first written in his official capacity, which explains to an unwise parson, in

language probably a good deal above the clergyman's comprehension, the folly, not to say the illegality, of refusing the communion to parishioners whose only offence was attendance at a theatre. In Wales, indeed, Thirlwall's linguistic talents availed him something. He learnt to speak and preach in Welsh ; but though he could learn the tongue, he was not the man to reach the hearts of Welshmen. "I am glad," he writes, "to find that anybody listened to my sermon. I admired the patience of the congregation, who, though three-fourths of them were longing for Dr. Griffith, did not make any scrapping with their feet or show any outward sign of suffering." Congregations of Ranters and Methodist never heard Thirlwall's passionless and convincing arguments without "longing for Dr. Griffith." He was scarcely more in harmony with the feeling of the clergy than with the sentiment of the common people. Incidental expressions in the 'Letters to a Friend' (obviously a young lady) show that Thirlwall himself felt that a cold and stiff manner shut him out from the sympathy and intercourse which his real kindness, wisdom, and loveliness ought, but for his chilling exterior, to have secured to him. Few, except here and there an intimate friend or a favored correspondent, knew the goodness of the Bishop's heart.

This is of itself pathetic ; but what makes the moral isolation of the Bishop something more than pathetic is that it must have been an almost insuperable bar to the adequate discharge of his duties. His statesmanlike breadth of view and his unrivalled capacity for cogent argument must, it would be thought, have found room for their display and exercise in the debates of the House of Lords. To a limited extent this probably was so ; his speeches were memorable. The miserable fallacies which are, to the disgrace of the nineteenth century, being reproduced in England and in Germany as an apology for or an extenuation of attacks on the Jews, and which might have excited horror even in the Middle Ages, are anticipated, exposed, and rebuked by Thirlwall's speech on Jewish disabilities delivered in 1848. But, though none but fools or bigots could despise, and none but the most skilled debaters and dialecticians could meet, Thirlwall's arguments, he did not apparently greatly influence his audience either in the House of Lords or in Convocation. The present Archbishop of Canterbury, Bishop Wilberforce, Bishop Magee, or the late Dean Stanley has each of them, it may fairly be conjectured, produced greater effects on the feelings, and even the actions, of the audiences he addressed than were ever produced by the incontrovertible reasoning of the Bishop of St. David's. Mill is no fair type of ordinary Englishmen.

Thirlwall's true sphere was his study, which he happily nicknamed "Chaos." Here his incessant application added daily to his immense knowledge. Yet, by some strange turn of fate, his learning and his wisdom were, from the time of his consecration as a bishop, of little avail to the world. His 'History of Greece' was, when he wrote it, by far the best work on the subject to be found in the English language. It has merits of its own which have never been surpassed ; yet it was superseded by Grote's great work, which had a kind of "body," so to speak, and life not to be found in Thirlwall's sensible and cautious sentiments. No one acknowledged the merits and the superiority of Grote's book with more ample and unstinting liberality than Thirlwall. But critics who admire and appreciate the generosity of the Bishop may also note that the ultimate cause of Grote's triumph, if so it can be called, in the magnanimous contest between the two friends, lies in the fact that the London banker possessed a sort

of largeness and force of character which somehow or other was wanting in Thirlwall. Grote was not a more remarkable or a more learned, but he certainly was in some way a bigger, man than the Bishop.

In the sphere, at any rate, of theology Thirlwall might have been expected to influence his age. In him profound learning and unrivalled dialectical skill and supreme soundness of judgment coexisted in a rare combination. The candid perusal of his letters makes it apparent that his mind was constantly occupied with the theological problems which have now exercised and tormented two generations of Englishmen. He was prepared to sum up the never-ending case of scepticism against revealed religion in favor of Christianity. His high character and his intellectual eminence were calculated to give to every expression of his convictions a weight, with the English public at least, as great as ought in reason to be attributed in matters of religious belief to the authority of any individual. But though Thirlwall was prepared to sum up the case, he never (if one may be allowed to follow out a metaphor irresistibly suggested by the idiosyncrasies of his genius) delivered judgment. A sermon such as that on the resurrection proves that he held the dogmas of Christianity to be not inconsistent with the dictates of reason; but he left no permanent or monumental work to explain, to defend, or support his theological beliefs. Moreover, his official position detracted from the influence of his opinions. A bishop defending orthodoxy is, however honest his own convictions, an apologist for dogmas which he can hardly deny to be true without some slur on his own honesty. An anonymous sceptic published toward the close of Thirlwall's life a book entitled 'Supernatural Religion.' The new writer was, whatever his other merits, deficient in accurate scholarship. The intelligent public and many acute critics, nevertheless, rushed to the conclusion that the author of an attack on revelation was the Bishop of St. David's. This stupid blunder proves the dulness of educated readers and educated writers. It also demonstrates past a doubt that the Bishop had failed to make any impression on the opinions of his generation. *Cor sapiens et intelligens ad discernendum judicium*, is the inscription on his monument. It contains far more truth than is generally found in epitaphs; but between the lines of the appropriate and deserved tribute to the memory of an eminent man those who have studied his life will read the thought that Connop Thirlwall—"scholar, historian, theologian"—though, or rather because, he was "for thirty-four years Bishop of St. David's," failed to make any permanent mark on his time, and will reflect that the lives of men have, no less than the dramas of tragedians, their touch of profound irony.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

THE wrongs of the American aborigines are doubtless great, but these have had their revenge upon the pale-faces by tantalizing them with a perpetual theme for ineffectual verse. The Indian names are often graceful and plaintive, their legends are poetical, yet who but Longfellow has succeeded in making anything out of them as literary material? Even he barely succeeded; and Whittier's "Mogg Megone" and "The Bridal of Pennacook" are left unread. What hope is there then for humbler bards, except perhaps to give pleasure to themselves and to their own households? Yet the longest poem thus far composed in America is said to be an Indian epic, called "Teuchsa Grondie," reviewed in its day in these columns, and comprising some ten

thousand lines. Compared with this, Major Mayer's 'Mendota' (Madison, Wis.: Atwood) seems exceedingly modest, with its thirty pages; and he borrows mainly the Hiawatha measure, thus securing ease to the reader, while he carefully avoids the less melodious Indian names. It is impossible to say as much for Mr. Hathaway's 'League of the Iroquois' (Chicago: Griggs), although it comes to us with a printed circular in which Mrs. M. E. Starrett, of the *Inter-Ocean*, describes it as "the American poem, the Indian epic which the literary world has long been waiting and looking for." But did the literary world—one may modestly ask—expect to find in this much desired epic a collection of proper names so formidable as the following verses, from the

"SONG OF NYAH-TAH-WANTA."

"Hayo-went-ha, Hayo-went-ha, great is he;
Come to woo Nyah-tah-wanta—can it be?
And he calls her lovely Kax-an—is it so?
But a lowly, simple maid—Nyah-tah-wanta—
that I know.
He, the Home-wind, sweet Kee-way-din, soothingly singing,
"Hayo-went-ha come to woo Nyah-tah-wanta—
That is well." (P. 10.)

Mr. Hathaway's picture and autograph are prefixed to the volume, and the whole is evidently the work of a gentle-hearted and painstaking man; but he has undertaken a task in which success is almost impossible, if the past results achieved by bards more experienced may be taken for a warning.

If it is hard to write readable Indian poetry, to produce good religious poetry is almost as difficult. If, as is sometimes intimated, the American church is in danger, it certainly will not be saved by clinging to such floating straws as are most of the volumes of devout verse which come to us; there seems no theme on which our authors demand so little of themselves. 'The Voice of St. John,' by Rev. William W. Newton (New York: Randolph), is the best of these; it has the serious and well-expressed thoughts of a cultivated man; and it is a small and modest volume. We cannot apply these terms to 'Search the Scriptures; or, The Way of Truth is the Way of Life' (San Francisco: Bancroft). Why should any one be led to search the Scriptures by books which are themselves far less searchable than the Scriptures? 'Moses Resisted,' by W. T. Helms (Nashville, Tenn.: Haynes & Camp), has far more to offer to the reader; it is a poem in twelve cantos, aimed nominally at Jannes and Jambres, who withstood Moses (2 Tim., iii., 8), but actually at the three "infidel scientists" of the day—Huxley, Darwin, and Tyndall. Every miracle wrought by Moses is hurled in long stanzas at the heads of these three guilty men; and as if this were not enough, the poet has a vision of his own respecting three serpents, whom he expressly identifies with these sinners in a foot-note. That they and their followers may know the worst, we state the application of the vision:

"Need I interpret what is here expressed
In allegory, as of form the best?
Need I to these three serpents give the name
By which each reves in an earthly fame?
Three scientists are they who lead the way,
And God and truth would with their fossils slay.

"As if they sat supreme in Wisdom's gates,
And knowledge centred in their sickly pates,
They and their smaller satellites assume
That Moses' record is laid in its tomb;
That Christian men of learning must agree
God's Book must yield to their geology!

"Forth from this Babylon, O Christian! come,
And make the Word of God alone your home;
Forth from their company, lest they enthral,
And you with them should to perdition fall:
Wear not their title vain, but let it be
A synonym for infidelity." (Pp. 6, 7.)

We should say that, as stated in this volume, and with such dangers and such defenders, it is as clearly a contest of fossil against fossil as the war in Bret Harte's celebrated scientific society. 'Theon,' by Sallie Neill Roach (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is a poem, half-narrative, half-dramatic, and inscribed "To the Lost Cause." We can only say of it that its execution is not quite

commensurate with the ardor of its purpose. Another Southern volume, looking more to the future, and far richer in poetic quality, is the collection called 'Down the Bayou, and Other Poems,' by Mary Ashley Townsend (Boston: Osgood). These poems, though printed in Boston, seem to have been mainly written in New Orleans—which we regret to find the author rhyming with "demesnes"—and have that wealth of unhackneyed material to which Mr. Cable's novels have been introducing us of late. The long, lazy, floating strain which gives its name to the volume is as delicious as a trip to Florida. Who would not be a poet, the reader asks, among palmettos and bananas, and within reach of Aztec remains and picturesque Mexico? The enlarging figures of our national census are, after all, less interesting than the steady introduction into our literature of new words and symbols drawn from Southern and Western travel and from the renewed exploration of Creole life and Spanish empire.

Still another Southern volume, 'Poems and Essays,' by Charles W. Hubner (New York: Brown & Derby), has a preface dated at Atlanta, Ga., but has no local coloring and might have been written anywhere. It is painstaking and devout, but not poetic, and might rather be classed among religious works. The prose part of it is fragmentary and rather sensible than striking.

From South we turn to West, for our supply of verse. According to the author of 'Maurine, and Other Poems,' by Ella Wheeler (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), it is clearly to the West alone that we are to look for poetry, henceforward:

"Not to the crowded East,
Where, in a well-worn groove,
Like the larnessed wheel of a great machine,
The trammelled mind must move—
Where Thought must follow the fashion of Thought,
Or be counted vulgar and set at naught:

"But to the mighty West,
That chosen realm of God,
Where Nature reaches her hands to men,
And Freedom walks abroad—
Where mind is King and fashion is naught:
There shall the New World look for thought." (P. 103.)

But we must honestly say that when we look for thought in this lady's volume we find that fashion is "king" instead of being "naught." She cannot tolerate a hero or a heroine with plain English names; the most commonplace youth must be named Roy Montaine or Vivian Dangerfield; and the most trivial maiden must be Helen Trevor or Maurine La Pelle. Why not be simple? Why not take the life of every day, East or West, and make it poetic? In a city of half a million inhabitants, like Chicago, there must surely be good enough names in the directory. It is useless to talk about the Mighty West, and then have nothing to show for it but such broad prairies of insipidity as the following stanzas:

"We always were meeting some way after that.
You hung up my hat,
And got it again when I finished my call.
Sixteen and so sweet!
Oh, those cute little feet!
Shall I ever forget how they tripped down the hall?
"Shall I ever forget the first kiss by the door,
Or the vows murmured o'er,
Or the rage and surprise of Maude-Belle? Well-a-day!
How swiftly time flows!
And who would suppose
That a bee could have carried me so far away?" (P. 219.)

But this utter refusal to find poetry in the life of every day is not limited by any meridian of longitude. The author of 'Arsesis, and Other Poems' (N. Y.: Putnam), who is anonymous, except for the mystic letters "Sx" in the middle of the title-page, asks the natural question:

"Why isn't that poets of the modern time
Seek in the graveyard of the buried Past
Fit subjects for their rhyme?
Is it that topics in the day they live
Are all unworthy of a poet's thought,
That they no record give?" (P. 106.)

But the author answers his question by printing a poem, long and not especially interesting, with

the scene laid in Egypt, and by making the interlocutors in the longest minor poem bear the names of Orvaldo and Alicia. There is food for reflection also in the author's standard of blank-verse, which is no worse than that of many volumes that come to us, but shows almost anywhere, by a cross-section, as it were, how remote is its construction from anything that suggests a flowing or continuous rhythm, or anything indeed but a series of syllables chopped into regular lengths. Take, for instance, the following (p. 75):

"A lovely night, a quiet night and still, not
Even the faintest suspicion of a sound to
Render less the silence. All is calm; calm
As the conscience of a maiden pure, too
Young by far to know of any sin.
How far beneath the moon this
Pretty mountain dell—a volume bound in
Silver and in green—like unto lands which
Have creation in the poet's mind, where," etc., etc.

In each of these lines the reader seems to come with a bump against the final syllable, as against a gate-post. Yet the author has poetic thought and sensibility, and in the easy, slipshod measure of the main poem he goes on well enough, and is sometimes melodious. Blank verse is as inevitably the test of a man's poetic ear as is a dress-suit of his capacity to look like a gentleman.

A good foil to the remoteness and vagueness of the volumes just mentioned may be found in the thin volume called 'Lora, a Romance in Verse,' by Paul Pastnor (Philadelphia: Potter & Co.). Here is a frank and honest theme, taken near home, and founded on the actual adventures of some young hunters in the upper regions of Vermont. It is a good example of the advantage gained by young poets when remaining on familiar ground and extracting poetry from that. The incidents are sometimes melodramatic, the pentameter measure sometimes halts; but the reader finds no difficulty in getting through it, and this is after all the first and most essential test of a poem. The main story is simple and wholesome, though the end is somewhat abrupt; the plot turns upon the charm exercised over the young farmers and hunters by a young French maiden, daughter of a well-to-do farmer on the Canada border; and there is something in the general situation which reminds one of Clough's delightful 'Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich' and sometimes of Goethe's 'Hermann and Dorothea,' yet without suggesting imitation. The local coloring, at any rate, is wholly cis-Atlantic. Here, for instance, is the farmer driving his cattle:

"Meanwhile, through the smooth, tempered air there
As the bardic song is:
The crush of loose, toll-heavy feet in the road-bed of
gravel;
The bowing and swaying together of huge, weary
creatures;
The creaking and rattling yoke; the sighs of submission;
The meek, muttered groans of the oxen; the swish of
the ox-whip;
And now and anon the guidance, in tones of moroseness,
And the slow, labored step of the farmer, desiring his
rest." (P. 19.)

Nothing can be more genuine than this; and scarcely less so is this picture of the exhausted sportsmen at their supper, surrounded by the picturesque French-Canadian children, but too busy to lift their eyes from their food:

"Meanwhile the children drew round, flocking out of
the shadows:
Beautiful children they were, and of lineage faultless.
Pure blood of France colored their veins like a river of
sunshine:
Liquid-eyed girls, with cheeks red as the grass-bidden
berry;
Dark, princely boys, like young noblemen playing
the peasant.
Now the door opens, and Lora, the eldest and fairest,
Enters and stands with the children. How charming
her picture
In the dim light, half surrounded by gipsy-brown
faces:
'Supper is ready,' she said in a voice soft and modest;
'Follow me, please.' Whereupon the young men rose
and followed.
Her eagerly into the low, dusky space of the kitchen.
There were huge dishes that steamed with a wholesome
provision;
Over the table their cloud and aroma were floating,
Sweeter than spicy-aden breezes, or breath of deep
gardens.
Unto the sportsmen. They, when they had taken their
places,

Spake not a word, nor looked up, but ate deeply, in
silence,
As on a slope fresh and fragrant, and kissed by the
morning,
Browes an ox with his dew-dripping face in the
clover." (P. 17.)

With all its crudeness, this book shows a keenness of observation and a felicity of epithet which give signs of promise for the future. We would especially commend it to young writers like George Macdonald Mair, the author of 'The Bride of Bar-Cocab' (N. Y.: C. Wesley Jones), who, with a poetic temperament and painstaking execution, has failed because his task was hopeless. The most experienced artist would probably fail in the attempt to extract materials for an attractive poem out of the books of the Maccabees and Numbers xxiv., 17; and a beginner needs especially to make his first experiment on a subject near home, even if it is only a yoke of oxen.

Mrs. Anne C. L. Botta has long held a creditable place in our literature, and the volume of her poems (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons) seems rather like a reprint than a new addition. There is in it no indication of any recent theme, and poems addressed to "Fredrika Bremer" and to "Byron amid the ruins of Carthage" speak the voice of a generation ago, suggesting what may be called the Mrs. Sigourney period of American poetry. It was a clear, simple, reasonable period, when aesthetes were not, and all that was asked of any one was to give a plain tale in a quiet way. Two poems in this volume, "The Ideal," and "The Ideal Found," tell of profounder experience, and have a good deal of emotional power.

The volume of Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford's poetry (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) suggests a little of that disappointment which has been inspired by her whole literary career. She is surpassed by no one among her country-women in some of the best gifts of authorship—in imagination, in wealth of language, in ear for an effective phrase—and yet, through some want of a sense of intellectual perspective, or through some defect in the focus of her genius, she has failed to take, as a prose writer, the place which seemed waiting for her to fill it. Her first story in the *Atlantic Monthly*, "In a Cellar," awakened expectations which she has never fulfilled; and now her volume of poems also brings some sense of incompleteness. She has at several times done what few women in America have accomplished: she has produced lyrics; a remarkable fact for one whose most obvious fault lies in exuberance. Twenty years ago, when criticising this lady's first novel, 'Sir Rohan's Ghost,' Lowell pronounced the ballad "In the Summer Even" an absolutely perfect thing, and then went on to nullify his own criticism by retouching it. He did not, however, improve it, but he altered the first line, no doubt unconsciously, to "In a summer twilight"—as good an instance as ever occurred, perhaps, of the very uncertain value of the very best criticism. As Mrs. Spofford has really never surpassed this little strain, it may be well to quote the whole of it, with careful avoidance of all attempts to make it better:

"In the summer even,
While yet the dew was hoar,
I went plucking purple pansies,
Till my love should come to shore.
The fishing lights their dances
Were keeping out at sea;
And, Come, I sung, my true love!
Come, hasten home to me!

"But the sea, it fell a-moaning
And the white gulls rocked thereon;
And the young moon dropped from heaven,
And the lights hid one by one.
All silently their glances
Slipped down the cruel sea,
And, Wait! cried the night and wind and storm—
Wait, till I come to thee." (P. 119.)

There are later poems, as "A Four-o'Clock," "Boat-Song," "Magdalen," and others, which have kept up the succession of these verses, exhibiting that sort of accidental perfection which

is, after all, the true test of song. It is a pity that the inevitable necessities of a thick volume have required the addition of many that were not conceived in an hour so happy. This being the case, we are all the more surprised, and rather sorry, that Mrs. Spofford has not reprinted her longest poem, "Pomegranate Flowers," published many years ago in the *Atlantic*, a production which had indeed her characteristic overabundance; but gave the promise of her power.

On the principle—so consoling to many a post-prandial orator who has been nearly forgotten by the head of the feast—of keeping the best wine to the last, we must close with expressing the heartiest enjoyment of a little volume entitled 'Love Poems and Sonnets,' by Owen Innsley (Boston: Williams). The prompt reception everywhere accorded to these modest strains is a most refreshing fact; it shows how sincere and spontaneous a thing is the public taste, after all, and how little it needs preliminary puffing and manipulation. It shows, too, that a young author may gain a certain advantage by letting thought accumulate and execution mature, and then giving a whole volume of fresh work, instead of first testing and perhaps palling the public taste through the magazines. "Owen Innsley" is now well understood to be the *nom de plume* of Miss Lucia W. Jennison, of Boston. Her father has long held a high place among the musical amateurs of that city; her uncle, Mr. Levi Thaxter, is well known through his sympathetic and studious readings of Browning's poems; and she is niece by marriage of Celia Thaxter, as well as of that gifted and wayward child of genius, the late John Weiss. She has thus had around her from childhood an unusual atmosphere of artistic cultivation, and has also had peculiar opportunities of travel and study in Europe. These things we mention, not by way of gossip, but to illustrate the advantages given by inheritance and training as to all that concerns artistic form; although doubtless, when natural genius is wanting, all the rest goes for naught. At any rate, the result here is that we have a volume full of deep passion, high imagination, and accurate expression, marked, moreover, by a quality of clearness which certainly does not suggest a disciple of Browning and of Weiss. It is this last trait, above all, which has helped the book to its ready popularity; and the verses in French, German, and Italian, even if viewed only as *tours de force*, have no doubt added something to the reputation the authoress seems destined so easily to win. We can think of no first volume by an American poet since 'Verses by H. H.,' which suggested so much promise, and it is only when the new writer attempts—incautiously and perhaps unconsciously—a theme like "Burnt Ships," or "The Zone of Calms," which Mrs. Jackson had handled before her, that we feel the greater strength of touch of the elder poet over the younger. The revelation of the sex of the author adds yet more to the interest, and makes the book a curious psychological study. Many women have written to many other women what might pass for love-poems, but never, within our knowledge, in a strain so close to the emotion of a high-minded man as here; and yet the note is touched with such delicacy that we experience no repugnance at the feminine origin—less than sometimes comes over us, for instance, in reading Shakspeare's sonnets. It seems hard to believe that any but a man wrote the following strong lines:

BONDAGE.

"And this is freedom!" cried the serf; 'at last
I tread free soil, the free air blows on me';
And, wild to learn the sweets of liberty
With eager hope his bosom bounded fast.
But not for nought had the long years amassed
Habit of slavery; among the free
He still was servile, and, disheartened, he
Crept back to the old bondage of the past.

Long did I bear a hard and heavy chain
Wreathed with amaranth and asphodel,
But though the flower-wreaths stole the weary pain,
I cast it off and fled, but 'twas in vain:
For when once more I passed by where it fell,
I took it up and bound it on again." (P. 89.)

It must be confessed, however, that this volume will probably incur nothing but contempt from the admirers of Whitman and Wilde, for with all its strength and passion it must seem to them basely and despicably pure.

SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

Sir Christopher Wren: His Family and His Times, with Original Letters and a Discourse on Architecture hitherto unpublished. 1585-1723. By Lucy Phillimore. With two illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. [Franklin Square Library.]

THE unwary book-buyer will surely be ensnared by the title of this book. Instead of the orderly account which he might expect of the distinguished builder's private and professional life, with something pertinent of the gossip of his times and his family, he will get a strange medley of sometimes wildly unreasonable statements, for the presentation of many of which the book's title and its avowed design furnish but the shadow of an apology. The preface says that the author intends her work as "a contribution toward that full and worthy biography of the great architect which may yet, she trusts, be written before London is finally robbed of the churches with which Wren's genius endowed her"; and the succeeding pages certainly offer a multitude of alleged facts and dogmatic generalizations which are evidently designed to "contribute" to something, albeit we cannot see that a large part of them bear upon the "full and worthy biography" of Sir Christopher. More than a third of the book is mainly devoted to a rather pathetic and unmistakably partisan biography of Bishop Matthew Wren, Sir Christopher's uncle, and abounds, as does the whole book, in direct and implied denunciations of every act which derogated from the authority and dignity of the Crown and "the Church" in that memorable seventeenth century in which so many germs of political and religious liberty broke painfully through the soil.

The writer's temper toward some of the controversies of that time is clear from her outspoken discussion of Bishop Wren's administration of the diocese of Norwich, and of his impeachment, of the downfall of Strafford, Laud, and Charles I., and of the Restoration and the reinstatement of Episcopacy, and from such words as these: "The consequences of" Bishop Abbot's promotion to the primacy over the head of "the saintly" Bishop Andrewes "were disastrous indeed. Had Andrewes succeeded Bancroft, and had Laud succeeded Andrewes, 'the Church had been settled on so sure a foundation that it had not easily been shaken.'" "The difficulties of his [Laud's] task had been doubled by the lax, un-Catholic rule of his predecessor." "The issue of that iniquitous trial [Strafford's], perhaps as great a perversion of justice as England had ever then known." "His [Laud's] murder was an immense triumph to all the sectarians." "When we look back to the years of the Rebellion, their darkness is lightened for us by the knowledge that the Restoration came at last." "This return [of Charles II.] was a promise of deliverance for the Church, and an end to that difficulty of preserving the Apostolic Succession which had so nearly proved a fatal one." Notwithstanding this narrow and antiquated blindness to the true value of those momentous struggles, the author's remarks upon questions of general history might be pardoned if they were in any way necessi-

tated by her conception of Sir Christopher's career; but they are not. They throw no light upon his character, his opinions, his work, or his fame. They are lugged in by the ears, at an utter loss of dignity and good taste.

Passing now to that part of the book which keeps within the legitimate limits of its subject, we find the main events of Sir Christopher's life set forth in a clear and entertaining manner. The author objects to Mr. Elmes's memoir (London, 1823) as dry and somewhat inaccurate, and there is no doubt that she has produced a more spirited narrative and one more trustworthy in minor details. Nevertheless she has failed in presenting a vivid picture of Sir Christopher or of his works. His numerous scientific discoveries and speculations are referred to, it is true, in connection with pleasing descriptions of the beginnings of the Royal Society. His architectural works are enumerated with careful regard to chronological exactitude, with many interesting antiquarian notes, with frequent apostrophes to their beauty and their supposed excellence of construction, and with frequent laments over their destruction at the Philistine hands of modern progress. But there is no attempt to trace the inner development of Wren's genius, or to bring him into relation with the history of thought or of art except a few such references as those to Fergusson's 'Modern Architecture,' where, we suppose, the inquisitive reader is expected to look up all such things. In a word, for a satisfactory idea of the significance of Wren's career, we must still consult the despised memoir of Mr. Elmes, or Britton and Pugin's 'Public Buildings of London,' or Longman's 'St. Paul's,' or Dr. Sprat's 'History,' or Dean Milman's 'Annals,' or go back to the fountain-head, the 'Parentalia' of Sir Christopher's son Christopher.

The probable interest of a critical study of Wren's life may be inferred from a rapid glance at its prominent features. Wren was a civil-engineer before he was an architect, and an astronomer, mathematician, physicist, and anatomist before that. He became the Gresham professor of Astronomy at twenty-four, an Oxford professor of the same science at twenty-eight, and he made his debut as an architect at thirty. He was the son of a well-known and versatile clergyman, from whom he inherited much of his talent. From early youth he attracted attention by his precocity in physical and mathematical studies. He held many prominent positions, and was one of the best-known men of his times outside of political circles. Throughout his life he displayed a fidelity and patience in the discharge of trusts, a persistency in overcoming difficulties, and a cool common-sense in all his social, civil, and professional relations that rendered him an invaluable public official. To these qualities as a scientist and a man, rather than to his force as an artist, he owed his popularity and his independence during four successive reigns. He kept out of political and ecclesiastical quarrels, and devoted himself to the unselfish performance of duties. He was indefatigable, honest, prudent, shrewd. He was encouraged and broadened by a greater or less acquaintance with men like Evelyn, Bernini, Hooke, Flamsteed, Halley, Newton, and Pascal.

The accident of the great fire of 1666 first tested his architectural ability, and was the occasion of his greatest successes and greatest failures; for it brought upon him, as Surveyor-General, the task of rebuilding St. Paul's and the many parochial churches of the city, a work of grand opportunities, but too extensive for one man. The list of buildings erected or repaired by him between 1663 and 1723 embraces no less than 60 churches and cathedrals, 35 guild-

halls, 8 colleges, 4 palaces, more than 20 civic buildings, hospitals, and theatres, besides many private houses. His labor upon St. Paul's extends over the long period of thirty-five years, and the vicissitudes of that undertaking have been often discussed. In all his works Wren's mechanical overshadows his artistic talent, although if he had had a thorough professional training, such as Inigo Jones had, he would probably have ranked among the foremost of architects. As it is, he often developed his favorite classical motives with conspicuous originality and good taste; and no one can deny that he was a consummately skilful and learned builder. The dome of St. Paul's, the interiors of St. Stephen's, Walbrook, and of St. James's, Westminster, and the spires of Bow Church and of St. Bride's have substantial and permanent value to the student.

In spite of these fine opportunities in the breadth and dignity of her theme, and in spite of her patience and care in consulting authorities, her unusual access to information, and her evident ability as a writer, we are forced to say that our author has not given us the critical study of Wren that is needed, nor "contributed" much to it. The reader lays down the book with no adequate conception of Wren's power as a thinker or of his style as an architect, and with a very distorted view of the times in which he lived. The lover of gossip, unphilosophical history will find the work entertaining and fresh; the historical student will find it only a provocation to controversy; while the architect may read it in the assurance that it will do him professionally neither harm nor good.

Home Decoration. By Janet E. Ruutz-Rees.—*Home Amusements.* By M. E. W. S. [Appletons' Home Books.] New York: D. Appleton & Co.

THE plan of the "Home Books" seems to be to leave nothing untouched, even at the risk of some overlapping or repetition. The home has been built and furnished, the garden and grounds laid out, hints for domestic arrangements and for cookery supplied, and the family instructed in the "amenities." It is now to be "decorated," so far as it may be done by the needles or the brushes of the presumptively feminine side of the house.

The first of the above-named books will pave the way for the specific instruction-books rather than supplant them; for it is neither very full nor very definite. The same may be said of the drawings, which suggest enough perhaps to the expert, but for beginners are inadequate. The descriptions are pretty, even if sometimes a little overdone. For instance, we should hardly have made so much of the piano-cover, No. 64, as the author does: "Two little birds in an apple-tree bough are pouring out floods of melody, while a rabbit, entranced, pauses in his delight and erects his ears to their utmost limit in his desire to catch the strain in its entirety. This design, worked upon crimson or deep-blue satin in outline-work, the blossoms only in raised French knot, would be simply charming." Painting is only hinted at, and but four pages are devoted to wood-carving. It is possible that the other eleven-twelfths of the book represent fairly the proportion which should be given to embroidery in house decoration while the present craze for it lasts. But since the author's aim is evidently to awaken a taste for it in circles not yet reached, it is well to warn the uninitiated of the perishable nature of much of such work. These decorations need constant renewal to prevent shabbiness, exposed as they must be to coal-dust, etc., through our long winters. The book gallantly follows the lead of its

superiors in insisting upon "artistic" feeling, purity of design, and the like; but we fail to see wherein the ornamentation of curtains with patterns made out of brass rings or white buttons is any more artistic than the now much-scorncd shell or leather-work of twenty years ago.

The subject of 'Home Amusements' deserves more careful treatment than it has received from "M. E. W. S.," who gives a catalogue of names, not a treatise on the subject; for very few games are more than mentioned. The premise of the book is that all amusements are home amusements, and that nearly everything else may be made into an amusement; so that it begins in the attic with theatricals, and ends in the kitchen with clear-starching. *En passant*, it includes the "Archery Club," which could never be strictly a home affair, and lawn-tennis, which can but rarely be so; while it excludes, of all things the most fit for the parlor fireside, chess, in this cavalier fashion: "As for chess, the devotee of this heavy, remorseless game has no further need of our help or sympathy. We can offer no suggestions except that he may be left undisturbed." There are some sprightly pages on such subjects as fans, tapestry, and garden-parties, but they are not improved by an extravagance like this: "The old tapestry, done by hand when there were no Gobelins, had a meaning and a use. So has the modern tapestry done by hand. It is cheap, it is individual, it is original; but for the Gobelins, that favorite luxury of kings, we fail to see an excuse." Or, "Favors for the German now often cost \$5,000 for one fashionable sale." The whole of the concluding chapter is written in a similar vein, to the effect that the modern young lady is vastly better off than her grandmother, who was shut up "within four dreary walls," with no "Kensington stitch," no painting, "artistic, sincere." "There were quiet dinners, and very many 'Germans,' but they were conducted inexpensively, at the hotels almost universally."

We need quote no more to show the writer's entire ignorance of social life fifty years ago. As to the dress, is not she the most envied girl of her set who is radiant in her grandmother's brocade? As for needle-work, how many baby's caps and socks are carefully worn once by each succeeding child, for the sake of the great-grandmother's stitches? and what more precious than the embroidered vest which grandfather wore on his wedding-day? It would not take much research to prove that in proportion to the wealth of the community and the possibilities of travel and intercourse, they had and did in the thirties quite as much as, if not more than, we. In the chapter on theatricals more might have been said about them as a resource for children, of course limiting them solely to a home amusement. The French have made great use of them for this purpose, and there are numerous plays, for girls and boys, or for either sex apart, that are as beautiful as they are simple. "Les Sabots de Noël" and "Le Déjeuner de l'Empereur" are each a little idyl; while "Le Laquais de Madame," a fitting pendant for "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," is an actual study in history, and yet not at all beyond bright girls. The need is growing for occupation that is a little more than amusing, in the long summers now spent in rather remote country-houses, and a French play for the children will entertain both old and young.

The Journal of Hellenic Studies. Vol. II. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE second issue of this work is perhaps hardly equal in interest to its predecessor. Certainly no article of the same literary excellence as Prof. Jebb's monograph on Delos in vol. i. en-

liven the somewhat dull average of most of the new papers. The editors have, we think, done wisely to issue the work in two yearly parts; for attempts such as this is to popularize subjects so remote from every-day interest as excavations in Greece and Asia Minor, with the results they yield in fragmentary inscriptions and mutilated works of art, need artificial help merely to live; and readers who put down a complete volume of 400 pages with a shrug, will sometimes brace themselves to the task of mastering 200 without tedium.

The only purely literary article in the present series is Mr. Tozer's on Byzantine satire. Anna Comnena, in a passage of the 'Alexiad,' speaking of a conspiracy among the courtiers against her father Alexius Comnenus, says they wrote scurrilous pamphlets (*pháμouσα*) and flung them into the Emperor's tent. A good many such Byzantine satires of various dates exist in manuscript—not less than twelve in the National Library of Paris alone. Two of them, 'Timarion's Sufferings' and 'The Sojourn of Mazaris in Hades,' have been published, the first by Hase, the latter by Boissonade. 'Timarion' was written in the first half of the twelfth century; 'Mazaris' in the beginning of the fifteenth. The subject of both is the same—an imaginary visit to the infernal regions. The author imitated is Lucian, whose writings were much studied under the Byzantine Emperors, and who has introduced this topic—life in the under-world—in four of his works, the 'Dialogues of the Dead,' the 'Cataplus,' the 'De Luctu,' and the 'Vera Historia.' The work, however, which is most directly imitated in 'Timarion,' the 'Necyomantia,' though ordinarily ascribed to Lucian, is now generally believed to be by an imitator. Abstracts of both 'Timarion' and 'Mazaris' are given by Mr. Tozer, as interesting as such highly shadowy creations usually are. There is some fancy in both, and a good deal of real humor in 'Mazaris'; but, speaking generally, the classical model is too palpable. The remarks on the Greek in which these satires are written are, however, of much value, and written with Mr. Tozer's usual care.

Next to this in importance is Prof. Jebb's 'Homeric and Hellenic Ilium,' in which, after premising the ground-fact ascertained by Dr. Schliemann that Hissarlik was inhabited at a prehistoric period, and might therefore be the site of the Homeric Ilium, he contributes to the controversy a review of the passages in ancient authors in which (1) the belief of these writers as to the site of Homeric Ilium is stated; (2) the history of the Greek city known in historical times as Ilium is traced. Whatever Dr. Schliemann's researches will eventually be considered to prove, there can be no doubt as to the importance of such an historical review of ancient testimony as Prof. Jebb here gives us; and this will atone for the comparative absence of literary finish which this paper presents as contrasted with that on Delos in the first volume.

Those who are interested in excavations will read with pleasure Dr. Schliemann's 'Explorations of the Boeotian Orchomenos.' Two previous attempts have been made to excavate the Treasury of Minyas, early in the century, by the artists in Lord Elgin's employ, and in 1862 by Gadakes, demarch of Skripu. Dr. Schliemann excavated systematically from above, and ascribes his success mainly to doing so. He used crowbars, pickaxes, shovels, and broad hoes, and employed from 100 to 121 laborers, one-half of them women. Pausanias describes the Treasury as a round stone building, rising into an obtuse point. Of this K. O. Müller believed a large marble slab to be the single surviving remnant; it was reserved for Dr. Schliemann to uncover it sufficiently to ascertain its measurement

and to be able to describe it in detail. It is smaller by three feet and some inches than the Treasury of Atreus at Mycenæ (which is 50 feet in diameter), and contains, besides, a thalamos, on its east side, approached by a corridor. The ceiling of this thalamos has a splendid ornamentation, a sculptured border of small squares, followed by a border of large rosettes. Throughout the whole length of the thalamos are rows of fine spirals interwoven with palm-leaves, between each pair of which a long bud shoots forth. We look for an illustration of this rare discovery with interest.

Far inferior in result to these explorations are Mr. W. M. Ramsay's contributions to the history of Southern Aëolis. The "finds" cannot be pronounced important, or in any way considerable. Their chief interest is in the new light they throw on the geography of Cume and the towns near it—Tennos, Myrina, Larissa, Ægeæ, and Neon Teichos. Coming to inscriptions, one of the principal departments to which the Journal is devoted, we are pleased to find articles by such eminent men in this line as Mr. C. T. Newton, Mr. E. L. Hicks, and M. Domenico Comparetti. M. Comparetti's article on two inscriptions from Olympia challenges special attention, partly by the ingenuity with which it treats two very obscure epigraphic remains, partly by its freedom of treatment. Mr. E. S. Roberts continues his account of the Dodonæan inscriptions recently given to the world by M. Karapanos. His former notice of these inscriptions has elicited a letter from Dr. Wordsworth, Bishop of Lincoln, who shows, with pardonable pride, that fifty years ago, at a time when the site of Dodona was still a problem, his divination had fixed on the right spot.

Among the papers devoted to art may be mentioned Mr. A. S. Murray's, on Perspective as applied in Early Greek art; Mr. C. Smith's, on a kylix containing the exploits of Theseus, and on vase-representations of actors with bird-masks; and Mr. Waldstein's continuation of his article on Pythagoras of Rhegion and the Early Athlete statues. None of these can compare in fulness with Mr. Sidney Colvin's learned diatribe on the Centaur, in the first volume of the Journal. The only other article which calls for special mention is Mr. Percy Gardner's interesting paper on Boat races among the Greeks. Mr. Verrall's continuation "On some Ionic Elements in Attic Tragedy" is as unconvincing in its conclusions as it is vigorous in style.

America. A History. I. The United States. II. Dominion of Canada. III. South America, etc. By Robert Mackenzie. London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 564.

MR. MACKENZIE'S 'America' is well planned to meet the needs of those Englishmen who wish a compendious history of all the American States; and it will not be unacceptable to Americans who desire to know something of the history of the other nations of North and South America. For the latter class it would be well worth while to reprint parts 2 and 3 by themselves; but even for these, again, part 1 contains a very good history of their own country, and all the more valuable as being from an English point of view. The book is to be commended in every way—in temper and spirit, in accuracy and fulness of knowledge, in graphic and interesting narrative. The first part, on the United States, contains 308 pages, rather more than half the work. A postscript of six pages (p. 303) gives the administration of General Garfield; and from a foot-note on this page we regret to learn that the author died after completing the work. Perhaps it would have been hard to illustrate with suitable maps a history which covers so much

territory; but if there had been such a map, it would probably not have been said (p. 117) that "Burgoyne marched deep into the New England States."

An Elementary Treatise on Electricity. By James Clerk Maxwell, M. A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE announcement of the appearance of this treatise has excited the interest of all students of electricity; for the author had shown in his little book on 'Heat' that he could write a most suggestive work on the elements of a scientific subject. The present work, however, is disappointing, if the student looks for new matter; for, with the exception of a few paragraphs upon electrical distribution, and portions of chapter x., which treats of electrical entropy, he will find nothing which is not contained in the larger treatise on 'Electricity and Magnetism,' by the same author. The editor of the 'Elementary Treatise' informs the public that the friends of Maxwell, finding the manuscript in an unfinished state, resolved to print it with such additions from vol. i. of the larger work as would make it cover the ground of the latter. Its chief *raison d'être*, therefore, appears to be in the fact that the non-mathematical portions of vol. i. of the larger work have been separated from the analytical portions, in order to make the former more accessible to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Black, W. The Four Macnicals. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Bowne, B. E. Metaphysics: a Study in First Principles. New York: Harper & Brothers.
Browning, O. Introduction to the History of Educational Theories. New York: Harper & Bros.
Buchanan, R. God and the Man. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Child, L. Maria, Isaac T. Hopper: a True Life. A new edition. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.
Crosby, W. O. Common Minerals and Rocks. No. xii. of Guides for Science-Teaching. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Daudet, A. Numa Roumestan. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.
Delbrück, B. Introduction to the Study of Language. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Düntzer, H. Lessing's Leben. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Emerson, L. O. The Male-Voice Choir. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co. 50 cents.
Emmerton, J. A. Materials toward a Genealogy of the Emmerton Family. Salem.
Fisher, O. Physics of the Earth's Crust. London: Macmillan & Co.
Fowle, T. W. The Poor Law. London: Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Gibbon, C. A Heart's Problem. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Griswold, W. M. Manual of Misused Words. 2d ed. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index. 25 cents.
Hollan, J. G. Every-day Topics. First and Second Series. 2 vols. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Hopkin, J. M. Homiletics. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$3.50.
Johnston, A. History of American Politics. New and enlarged ed. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
Kant, I. Zum ewigen Frieden. Leipzig: Philipp Reclam, Jr.
Ladd, G. T. The Principles of Church Polity. Southworth Lectures at Andover. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Masson, G. The Huguenots. London and New York: Cassell, Potter, Galpin & Co.
Methodist Year-Book for 1882. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 10 cents.
New Testament in Greek, as revised by Westcott and Hort. With Introduction and Appendix. New York: Harper & Bros.
Preble, Rear-Admiral G. H. History of the Flag of the U. S. A. 3d ed. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$7.50.

Q. P. Index Annual for 1881: International, Popular Science, Century, Harper's, Lippincott's, Atlantic, Nation, Living Age, Eclectic. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index. \$1.
Reading Diary of Modern Fiction. New York: F. Leybold.
Rolle, W. J. Shakespeare's Comedy of Measure for Measure. New York: Harper & Bros.
Ruge, A. Geschichte unserer Zeit, von den Freiheitskriegen bis zum Ausbruche des deutsch-französischen Krieges. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Shannon, F. A. F. Historical Epochs, with System of Mnemonics. New York: Taintor Brothers, Merrill & Co. 50 cents.
Smith, H. B. Lectures on Apologetics. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.
Stacke, L. Deutsche Geschichte. Part 6 and last. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Stallo, J. B. The Concepts and Theories of Modern Physics. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$1.75.
Story's Commentaries on the Law of Agency. Ninth edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Taylor, D. T. The Reign of Christ on Earth. Boston: Scriptural Tract Depository. \$1.25.
Taylor, J. R. Macon Moore, the Southern Detective. New York: J. S. Ogilvie & Co. 25 cents.
Taylor, C. F. Sensation and Pain. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Tender and True: Poems of Love. Boston: George H. Ellis. \$1.
Thatcher, E. Digest of Statutes, Rules, and Decisions relative to the Jurisdiction and Practice of the U. S. Supreme Court. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Thorold, Bishop A. W. The Gospel of Christ. New York: A. D. P. Randolph & Co. \$1.35.
Vincent, J. H. No. 25 of Chautauqua Text Books: Outlines of General History. New York: Phillips & Hunt.
Walpole, S. The Electorate and the Legislature. London: Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Westcott, Canon B. F. The Revelation of the Risen Lord. London and Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. \$1.75.
Whedon's Commentary on the Old Testament. Vol. v. Psalms. By F. G. Hibbard. New York: Phillips & Hunt. \$2.50.
Willard, A. J. Examination of the Law of Personal Rights. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$2.50.
Wislicenus, J. Adolph Strecker's Organic Chemistry. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$5.
Woolsey, T. D. Divorce and Divorce Legislation in the United States. Second revised edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Winsor, J. Memorial History of Boston. Vol. iv. and last. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

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THIRTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE: NOS. 346 AND 348 BROADWAY.

JANUARY 1, 1882.

Amount of Net Cash Assets, January 1, 1881.....\$41,344,120 85

REVENUE ACCOUNT.

| | | |
|--|----------------|-----------------|
| Premiums..... | \$8,138,684 07 | |
| Less deferred premiums Jan. 1, 1881..... | 387,972 13 | \$8,050,711 94 |
| Interest and rents (including realized gains on real estate sold)..... | 2,789,821 70 | |
| Less interest accrued Jan. 1, 1881..... | 357,167 37 | 2,432,654 33 |
| | | \$10,483,366 27 |
| | | \$51,827,487 12 |

DISBURSEMENT ACCOUNT.

| | | |
|--|----------------|-----------------|
| Losses by death, including Reversionary additions to same..... | \$2,013,203 32 | |
| Endowments matured and discounted, including Reversionary additions to same..... | 564,324 96 | |
| Annuities, dividends, and returned premiums on cancelled policies..... | 2,513,001 94 | |
| Total paid Policyholders..... | \$5,090,530 22 | |
| Taxes and re-insurances..... | 224,772 24 | |
| Commissions, brokerages, agency expenses, and physicians' fees..... | 1,001,027 59 | |
| Office and law expenses—salaries, advertising, printing, etc..... | 370,860 21 | \$6,697,480 26 |
| | | \$45,130,006 86 |

ASSETS.

| | | |
|---|----------------|-----------------|
| Cash in bank, on hand, and invested in United States, N. Y., & Real estate..... | \$1,271,588 41 | |
| Bonds and mortgages, first lien on real estate and the policies assigned to the Company..... | 17,516,531 42 | |
| Temporary loans secured by stocks, market value..... | 4,486,566 02 | |
| * Loans on existing policies (the reserve held by the company on these policies amounts to \$2,879,000)..... | 18,215,030 73 | |
| * Quarterly and semi-annual premiums on existing policies, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1882..... | 2,376,000 00 | |
| * Premiums on existing policies in course of transmission and collection (estimated reserve on these policies, \$300,000, included in liabilities)..... | 545,227 34 | |
| Agents' balances..... | 452,161 00 | |
| Accrued interest on investments Jan. 1, 1882..... | 227,032 97 | |
| Excess of market value of securities over cost..... | 48,673 57 | |
| * A detailed schedule of these items will accompany the usual annual report filed with the Insurance Department of the State of New York. | 291,254 80 | \$45,130,006 86 |
| | | \$2,008,774 78 |

CASH ASSETS, Jan. 1, 1882.....\$47,228,781 64

APPROPRIATED AS FOLLOWS:

| | | |
|---|---------------|-----------------|
| Adjusted losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1882..... | \$301,544 70 | |
| Reported losses, awaiting proof, etc..... | 187,439 98 | |
| Matured endowments, due and unpaid (claims not presented)..... | 50,252 67 | |
| Annuities, due and unpaid (uncalled for)..... | 2,965 35 | |
| Reserved for re-insurance on existing policies; participating insurance at 4 per cent. Carleton net premium; non-participating at 5 per cent. Carleton net premium..... | 39,716,408 63 | |
| Reserved for contingent liabilities to Tontine Dividend Fund, over and above a 4 per cent. reserve on existing policies of that class..... | 2,054,244 03 | |
| Reserved for premiums paid in advance..... | 28,889 67 | |
| | | \$42,401,745 06 |

Divisible Surplus at 4 per cent.....4,827,036 61
Estimated Surplus by the New York State Standard at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., over.....10,000,000 00

From the undivided surplus of \$4,827,036 the Board of Trustees has declared a Reversionary dividend to participating policies in proportion to their contribution to surplus, available on settlement of next annual premium.

During the year 9,941 policies have been issued, insuring \$32,374,281.

| Number of Policies in force | Jan. 1, 1878, 45,605. Jan. 1, 1879, 45,005. Jan. 1, 1880, 45,705. Jan. 1, 1881, 45,548. Jan. 1, 1882, 53,927. | Amount at risk. | Jan. 1, 1878, \$127,901,887. Jan. 1, 1879, 125,232,144. Jan. 1, 1880, 127,417,763. Jan. 1, 1881, 135,720,916. Jan. 1, 1882, 151,760,824. |
|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Death-claims paid. | 1877, \$1,638,128. 1878, 1,687,076. 1879, 1,569,854. 1880, 1,731,721. 1881, 2,013,203. | Income from Interest. | 1877, \$1,897,457. 1878, 1,948,665. 1879, 2,623,650. 1880, 2,317,889. 1881, 2,423,654. |
| | | Divisible Surplus at 4 per cent. | Jan. 1, 1878, \$2,064,144. Jan. 1, 1879, 2,811,437. Jan. 1, 1880, 3,120,371. Jan. 1, 1881, 4,205,090. Jan. 1, 1882, 4,827,036. |

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Union Bank of New London, located at New London, in the State of Connecticut, is closing up its affairs. All noteholders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.
L. C. LEARNED, Cashier.
Dated January 17, 1882.

NEW ENGLAND
MUTUAL
Life Insurance Co. of Boston.

Assets.....\$15,131,240 65
Liabilities.....13,252,078 59

Total Surplus.....\$1,879,162 06

BENJ. F. STEVENS, President.
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